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# Long-Range Forecasting and Climate Research

## The Climate of the World

1. Introduction to World Climate
2. Description of World Climate

by

C. K. Folland and D. E. Parker

LRFC 22

July 1988

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LONG RANGE FORECASTING AND CLIMATE RESEARCH MEMORANDUM NO. 22
(LRFC 22)

# THE CLIMATE OF THE WORLD

1. INTRODUCTION TO WORLD CLIMATE
2. DESCRIPTION OF WORLD CLIMATE

by

C K Folland and D E Parker

NOTES FOR TWO ADVANCED LECTURES FOR THE SCIENTIFIC OFFICERS' COURSE, METEOROLOGICAL OFFICE, 1988

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The climate of the world.
1. Introduction to world climate.
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This Memorandum is the first in a series of seven on:

# THE CLIMATE OF THE WORLD

by

C K Folland and D E Parker

Based on ten Advanced Lectures for the Scientific Officers' Course, 1988, and one Advanced Lecture delivered by D J Carson in March 1982.

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# LECTURE 1 INTRODUCTION TO WORLD CLIMATE

C K FOLLAND AND D E PARKER

MET O 13

SUMMARY

This lecture introduces some approaches to the study of climate and provides a set of general definitions of a subject. Some major statistical techniques are discussed. A review of the World Climate Programme emphasises its constituent World Climate Research Programme and sub-programmes such as the Tropical Ocean-Global Atmosphere programme, the World Ocean Circulation Experiment, and the planned Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment. The Sahel region, introduced in this lecture to illustrate recent observed climatic change, is a recurrent theme throughout the series, and we are now able to include under "research into climate" some recent rudimentary but physically-based attempts to predict climate in the Sahel and other regions one or more seasons ahead.

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

There are several complementary approaches to the study of climate. A traditional image of climate is the one often presented at school. In the preface to his book 'Climatology' (9th Edition 1961) the famous Reading University geographer Professor Austin Miller wrote 'The nature of the relief, the vegetation, the habits of the people, their architecture and their occupations will be attuned to the prevailing rainfall and temperature conditions and it is the response rather than the cause which the geographer wishes to know'. This is still the main approach of the many 'human' geographers who wish to use climatic data to explain the development of society and industry in the context of the physical environment. It is nevertheless a legitimate use of climatic data, paralleled by the wide-spread use of climatic data by industry and agriculture for planning. Here, an understanding of how climate operates

is much less important than the goal of collecting and validating climatic data to provide reliable analyses of those data tuned to user's needs. However, a qualitative understanding of climate is still very desirable when deciding on the choice of appropriate statistics and of suitable data; nowadays many of the analyses needed are far removed from the calculation of simple climatic averages. This 'applied' climatological activity is important in several branches of the Meteorological Office.

Over the last few decades, research into the physical basis of climate and more recently its variability has become increasingly feasible and productive as a result of developments in meteorological theory, computers and thus in meteorological models. In addition, our ability to collect and validate reliable worldwide data has considerably increased. Research into the mechanisms and behaviour of climate is essential if useful predictions of climate are to become possible, especially the prediction or simulation of the consequences of increased concentrations of carbon dioxide and other trace gases in the atmosphere, and the persistent and socially disruptive droughts in parts of the tropics. In the following lectures most emphasis will therefore be placed on the physical approach to climate.

We shall frequently refer to the Met O 20 advanced lectures on the physics and dynamics of the climate system. There is no hard and fast rule for the difference between the two sets of lectures; however Met O 20's lectures emphasise the physical causes and principles underlying the atmospheric and oceanic circulation. Our lectures will have a similar background but are more concerned with the observed behaviour of statistical ensembles of weather events (climate) and the reasons for that behaviour. We will also have an eye on the question: how could we predict these variations? So our lectures will emphasise the near surface environment that affects man, animals and plants. Of course the atmosphere is 3-dimensional and discussion of 'higher' climatic matters will be brought in as necessary.

## 1.2 WHAT IS CLIMATE?

The Scientific Plan for the World Climate Research Programme (World Meteorological Organization (WMO) (1984a)) provides several useful definitions:-

- Weather is the manifestation of a state of the atmosphere at a particular instant in time and the evolution of this state through the generation, growth and decay of individual transient (synoptic scale) disturbances.

- Climate is the synthesis of weather over the whole of a period long enough to establish its statistical ensemble properties (mean values, variances, probabilities of extreme events ...) and is largely independent of any (particular) instantaneous atmospheric state. A climatic state is described by these statistical properties.

- Climatic change (or climatic signal) is measured by the difference between mean values of a climatic parameter or statistic, i.e. the difference between climatic states.

- Climatic variability is measured by the deviations of monthly, seasonal and annual values from the mean value of the climatic state established over an ensemble of such periods. The differences from the mean associated with an individual event are called anomalies.

A given' climate' is commonly estimated by means of measurements made over a period of 30 years. Climatic variability is in principle a manifestation of the variations of time-averaged weather that contribute to a given climate: eg the fact that last January was markedly different from the previous January would usually reflect 'climatic variability', but if the average temperature for the last 30 Januarys had been markedly different from the average temperture of the preceeding 30 Januarys, we

could legitimately talk about "climatic change". Climatic 'variability' of course includes a stochastic component due to transient variations associated with weather.

## 1.3 METHODS OF STUDYING CLIMATE

### 1.3.1 Empirical methods

Most (but not all) scientific knowledge is based on observations. We usually need to make observations in order to develop theories or choose between competing alternatives. Much empirical work on climate is basically 'detective' work which attempts to find out how the atmosphere and oceans behave on time scales longer than a few days, as few theories yet exist for such behaviour. An outstanding example of an important climatic fluctuation which has been studied empirically is the remarkable 20 year drought in the Sahel region of Africa (1968-date) whose continued persistence since the well known initial drought sequence of 1968-1974 was only verified in 1982 (Lamb (1982)) but whose consequences are now painfully obvious (Figure 1.1). On a shorter time scale there is a tendency for the extratropical north Pacific/north American/subtropical west Atlantic atmosphere to adopt a special 'PNA' pattern of geographical variation on time scales of weeks in the winter half year. This variation has an equivalent-barotropic structure in the vertical and seems to be distinct from synoptic scale variability as it exhibits the characteristics of a stationary wave with a non-zonal orientation (Figure 1.2). This atmospheric 'regime' was discovered about 50 years ago by Walker and Bliss (1932), confirmed quite recently by Wallace and Gutzler (1981) and is now found to exist in several atmospheric general circulation models (AGCMs) eg Qiu and Esbensen (1984). The PNA pattern seems to be one of several internal atmospheric modes that can be self stimulated within the atmosphere or in AGCM's but might also be preferentially stimulated (or suppressed?) by external forcing eg due to sea surface temperature anomalies etc (Fig 1.2). These wave-like patterns are sometimes called teleconnections, as the fluctuations of a given variable, eg 500 mb

geopotential, at a selected location tend to be persistently positively or negatively correlated with those at selected distant locations. Teleconnections have long been used in long range forecasting.

Synoptic climatology is a branch of climatology which up to recently has been the province of the empiricist. There are many definitions of the subject but in essence it tries to provide explanations or predictions of regional or local climates in terms of large scale fluctuations of the atmosphere. Only one book purely devoted to synoptic climatology has been published so far (Barry and Perry (1973)), written before the use of AGCM's started to make an impact on the subject. The 'synoptic method' involves the study of changes in circulation patterns measured at fixed times or averaged over fixed intervals. It can be quite a powerful technique when used in a discriminating way; thus it provided the foundations of practical short-range weather forecasting prior to the extensive use of mathematical forecasting models. One prominent technique of synoptic climatology is to classify time-averaged circulation patterns into 'types' which have markedly different consequences for regional surface weather or which appear to reflect different physical generating mechanisms. The PNA pattern mentioned above would be a good example of a 'circulation type'. Other examples of circulation types include the 4 basic 'elementary circulation mechanisms' of Dzerdzeevski (with 41 sub-units) (see p164 of Barry and Perry (1973)) that attempt to summarise different patterns of extratropical Northern Hemisphere circulation. These patterns were developed to help long-range forecasting in Russia (Figure 1.3), and have been used by Kalnicky (1987) both to define natural seasons and to analyse climatic changes. A local example is the catalogue of the so called 'Lamb' types of daily surface circulation patterns over UK whose aggregate over long periods has often been found useful in climate studies and in long-range forecasting for the UK (Lamb (1972)). Figure 1.4 gives examples of Lamb types. Both Lamb"s and Dzerdzeevski's patterns were subjectively determined, but recent advances in computing technology and statistical theory have encouraged the development of objective methods of classification of patterns of atmospheric circulation (and of other fields such as rainfall or sea surface temperature). Barnston and Livezey (1987) used orthogonally rotated principal component analysis of time-series of

monthly fields of 700 mb geopotential height to classify atmospheric circulation patterns over the Northern Hemisphere. The PNA pattern was prominent in their results, as was the North Atlantic Oscillation which is a "see-saw" of geopotential (and sea-level pressure) between the Azores region and the Greenland-Iceland region (Figure 1.5). There are, however, a number of pitfalls in principal component analysis: it is necessary to ensure that the patterns generated faithfully represent the original data and are physically meaningful. To this end, a choice between different matrix rotations may be needed (Richman (1986)), and statistical tests must be applied to estimate sampling errors in the estimation of the principal components or empirical orthogonal functions (North et al (1982)), and to determine which patterns account for sufficient variance in the original data to be classified as "signal" rather than "noise" (Overland and Preisendorfer (1982)).

Empirical analysis of climatic data also includes the determination of the regularity and magnitude of changes in time. This may be done by filtering (Bath (1974)), by direct Fourier transformation of the data, by Fourier transform of the lag-autocorrelation function of the data (Blackman and Tukey (1959)), or by the maximum entropy power spectral method (Ulrych and Bishop (1975)). The structure of time-series is often investigated also by the autoregressive and moving-average techniques pioneered by Box and Jenkins (1976). Figure 1.6 shows a maximum-entropy power-spectrum of a 5-year time-series of daily Central England Temperature. The data were derived from observations for several stations using the principles laid down for monthly Central England Temperature by Manley (1974). Nearly 50% of the variance in the series is seen to be on time-scales of 10 days to 2 months, and there is a peak of variability on an 8-month time-scale. However, different 5 year periods provide spectra which, although often similar in form, are different in detail, indicating that apparent regularities either are short-lived or are manifestations of physical forcings active on a band of time-scales. Over longer periods, spectra may change radically (Fig 1.7). It is therefore essential to assess the statistical significance of apparent periodiaties or peaks in power-spectra or Fourier transforms. This may be done by an extension of analysis-of-variance techniques or by Monte Carlo sampling, in which are

computed power spectra of many randomly-generated samples having the same autoregressive structure (ie degree of "persistence" or "red noise") as the series under analysis.

Another useful technique is the stratification and averaging together of fields (or local values) according to their temporal relationship with particular events, such as major volcanic eruptions, or El nino warmings in the East Tropical Pacific Ocean. In this way it is possible to compare, for example, average global fields of mean-sea-level pressure at the time of "key events" such as El Nino warmings with corresponding fields one year earlier. The technique is sometimes called "superposed epoch analysis". In a similar vein, fields for a particular time of year may be averaged over successive periods (of eg 30 years) in order to seek indications of climatic change. As in other techniques, statistical significance must be assessed carefully. At a given point, a t-test may be used to measure the statistical significance of the difference between the average of one set of values and that of the other, but allowance must be made for any reduction in the number of degrees of freedom or enhancement of the standard error, resulting from time-lagged autocorrelation (Brooks and Carruthers (1953), p326). For an entire field, a proportion p of points will have statistically significant differences at the 100(1-p)% level of confidence if the original data are random numbers, and the field can only be reckoned as statistically significant at the 100(1-p)% level of confidence if the number of significant points exceeds that expected to occur on 100(1-p)% of occasions according to binomial probability theory (Livezey and Chen (1983)). Furthermore, the interdependence of the data at differing points in the field must be taken into account when estimating the effective number of independent data or degrees of freedom in the field, which needs to be known when applying the binomial theory. Livezey and Chen therefore recommend Monte Carlo sampling as a means of assessment of statistical significance of fields. The selection and averaging together of fields, and computation of local significance tests, is repeated many times with the same sample size as in the original comparison, but with randomly selected periods, or with randomly selected dates instead of the dates of actual "key events". It is assumed that, because the fields are from the same set as those originally compared, the

spatial structure of the composites is the same. The number of significant points in the original comparison is compared with the frequency distribution of the number of significant points in the set of random comparisons.

### 1.3.2 Numerical Modelling

This subject is extensively discussed in the Met O 20 advanced lectures on the physics and dynamics of the climate system. A recent development has been the interactive use of synoptic climatological methods and AGCM's to study short time scale climatic fluctuations. The best example so far is the ongoing, extensive, international study of the El Nino/Southern Oscillation (eg Nihoul (Ed) (1985)) where AGCM and OGCM (ocean GCM) experiments have been firmly guided by a series of climatological investigations (eg Rasmusson and Carpenter (1982)). Our own works on simulation and prediction of seasonal rainfall variations in subsaharan Africa is a further example. Some of the results of the GCM experiments already go beyond what would soundly be deduced from available observations alone (see Lectures 5 and 6 in this series). In this way the modelling results stimulate new ways of looking at the observations allowing interactive studies to flourish.

Numerical modelling has also become a useful adjunct to observational studies in palaeoclimatology, especially for the period from the late Glacial until the present (Lectures 7 and 8). For studies of the effects of changes of land surface albedo and moisture availability, and of the effects of increasing concentrations of carbon dioxide and other trace gases in the atmosphere, numerical modelling has long been to the fore, and results are discussed both in Lectures 4, 5 and 10 and in the Met O 20 lectures.

The increase in computing power in the last decade or so has begun to allow the completion of sets or "ensembles" of numerical model integrations, each integration having slightly different initial conditions. Alternatively, very long integrations are completed and individual sections of the integrations are regarded as separate samples of

the simulated climate. The experiments are repeated with different forcing, eg doubled atmospheric carbon dioxide. The sets of samples of the two simulated climates are then compared and the statistical significance of, say, atmospheric circulation changes is estimated. In such cases the aforementioned methods advocated by Livezey and Chen (1983) for estimating field significance should be applied.

## 1.4 THE WORLD CLIMATE PROGRAMME

In 1974 the Executive Committee of WMO decided that it was important for WMO to take a lead in promoting studies of climatic changes and their impact on the natural environment and on food production. So, jointly with ICSU, the International Council of Scientific Unions, they arranged a high level scientific and technical World Climate Conference in 1979 which represented the climate-sensitive branches of national economies including agriculture, energy, water resources, fisheries and health (WMO (1979)). They reviewed knowledge of climatic change and variability and their implications for human activities. There followed an outline plan and basis for the World Climate Programme (WCP) 1980-1983 (WMO 540) (1980).

WMO's role is to support and help co-ordinate national activities, not to run them. They have set up a World Climate Programme Office within the Office of the WMO/ICSU Joint Planning Staff at Geneva and have established a Joint Scientific Committee (JSC) with ICSU to provide, amongst other things, scientific guidance for the international aspects of the World Climate Research Programme which is a sub-unit of WCP. The JSC determines the main research objectives and facilitates the exchange of information between scientists.

The World Climate Programme is divided into 4 main sections:-

### 1.4.1. World Climate Data Programme (WCDP)

It might be thought that the voluminous data being collected to support weather forecasting should also be sufficient for climate studies. Indeed the data collected for weather forecasting, including those archived

in the form of initialised meteorological fields, are increasingly valuable for studies of climate. Nevertheless elucidation of many of the processes essential to climatic fluctuations or climatic change, as well as monitoring how the climate is currently behaving, requires many more atmospheric data from above the oceans and remote land areas than are at present available. Even more importantly, reliable worldwide data from the ocean surface and from the depths of the ocean are badly needed. The study of climatic change also demands long, homogeneous, records. If we are to make more progress with observational studies of climatic change not only must the future coverage of atmospheric, land surface and ocean data be more complete, but we must be able to make use of existing historic data. Many of these are not at present easily accessible nor have they been properly validated.

So major goals of WCDP are improvement of future observational coverage of the atmosphere and the boundary surfaces and here satellite data will be vitally important. Working groups have begun to organise the identification and assembly of data for reliable "reference stations", of lengthy climatic data sets covering the last 100 years, and of as complete a set as possible of atmospheric, ocean and land-surface data for about the last 30 years.The WCDP includes the "CLICOM" project (WMO 1986c)) in which small computers and appropriate software and training are supplied to developing nations to enable them to archive and process their climatic data, with a view to local applications as well as the improvement of the global data base. There are also projects for rescue of manuscript data in danger of irretrievable loss: for example, a mobile unit recently toured several countries and microfilmed their records.

### 1.4.2 World Climate Applications Programme (WCAP)

Specific goals of WCAP are to enlighten people and policy-makers concerning the value of applying climatic data to socio-economic problems and to ensure that relevant knowledge is available to them. Examples include agriculture, water, energy and health. In fact such applications are already quite highly developed in some countries eg in the UK. In the UK climatic data are extensively used to aid agriculture eg to advise on

irrigation and on preventive measures for disease control, to design oil rigs guarded against extremes of wind and waves, and to design and simulate the behaviour of storm water sewers and culverts in a cost-effective way etc. Clearly these activities are appropriate in many parts of the world. Figure 1.8 provides an example of a practical application of climatic data to agriculture; Fig 1.8 can be used, with additional information, to decide where in England and Wales it may be cost effective to grow maize to make a form of silage to feed animals in the winter.

### 1.4.3 World Climate Impact Studies Programme (WCIP)

This is a more open-ended program that seems to come nearest to the 'geographers' approach to climate. The main objectives are to study the impact of climatic variability and climatic changes on the main economic activities in society (eg agriculture, transport, land use and water resources) and the way that society reacts to these fluctuations with emphasis on the range of impacts in different human societies throughout the world. These societies might be chosen for their different levels of development and different natural environments. The WCIP includes the International Satellite Land-Surface Climatology Project (ISLSCP) for monitoring changes in land-use and vegetation cover, for generating input parameters for climate models, and for providing data on which to base improvements of parametrizations of land-surface/atmosphere interactions.

### 1.4.4 World Climate Research Programme (WCRP)

This is the most important unit of the World Climate Programme from the point of view of these lectures. This programme developed from the Global Atmospheric Research Programme of the 1970's. Its main objectives (see WMO (1984a)) are bold: to determine to what extent climate can be predicted and the extent of man's influence on climate. The primary approach for meeting these objectives is based on the use of physical-mathematical models (eg general circulation models) capable of simulating and eventually (perhaps) predicting climatic fluctuations and changes. The programme is divided into three streams:-

(a) Stream 1

This stream is meant to establish the basis for long-range weather forecasting, i.e. the prediction of weather anomalies on time scales of 1-2 months (perhaps a little more). Thus the development of long-range weather forecasting is now elevated in an international context to a primary concern of meteorology and climatology. WMO (1984 (b)) gives a detailed picture of developments, and further references. The crucial importance of ocean-atmosphere interaction for long-range weather forecasting is illustrated by WMO (1986 (a)).

(b) Stream 2

This stream aims at predicting variations of global climate over periods of several years. This is an even bolder aim and a special sub-programme of the World Climate Research Programme called TOGA (Tropical Ocean Global Atmosphere Research Programme) was set up in 1985. This programme recognises the crucial role that anomalies in the circulation and heat content of the tropical ocean have in interannual climatic variability. It also recognises the fact that variations in the temperature of the upper layers of the tropical oceans, for example, can to some extent be understood without attempting to model the remainder of the global ocean in full detail. This strategy is a consequence of current ideas about the dynamics of the tropical oceans. Here the Coriolis force is weak giving rise to several dynamical processes which differ from those in mid latitudes and whose purely marine effects tend to be confined to the tropics.

The overall objectives of TOGA are:

(i) To gain a description of the tropical oceans and the global atmosphere as a time-dependent system, in order to determine the extent to which this system is predictable on time-scales of months to years, and to understand the mechanisms and processes underlying its variability.

(ii) To study the feasibility of modelling the coupled ocean-atmosphere system for the purpose of predicting its variations on time-scales of months to years.

(iii) To provide the scientific background for designing an observing and data transmission system for operational prediction if this capability is demonstrated by coupled atmosphere-ocean models.

A description of the progress made in TOGA may be found in WMO (1987d).

(c) Stream 3

This stream aims at studying the patterns of climatic fluctuation and variation over several decades or more and assessing the potential response of climate to man-made or natural influences. For example, these influences might be the increase of carbon dioxide and other trace gases in the atmosphere or slow changes in the large scale global oceanic circulation. Thus a key sub-programme will be the World Ocean Circulation Experiment (WOCE) planned for the 1990's (WMO (1986b)).

The first goal of WOCE is to develop models useful for predicting climatic change and to collect the data necessary to test them. Specific objectives within this goal are to determine and understand on a global basis the following aspects of the world oceanic circulation and their relation to climate:

(i) The large-scale fluxes of heat and fresh water, their divergences over 5 years, and their annual and interannual variability.

(ii) The dynamical balance of the world oceanic circulation and its response to changing surface fluxes.

(iii) Components of oceanic variability on months to years, megameters to global scale, and the statistics on smaller scales.

(iv) The rates and nature of formation, ventilation and circulation of water masses that influence the climate system on time scales from ten to one hundred years.

The second goal of WOCE is to determine the representativeness of the specific WOCE data sets for the long-term behaviour of the ocean, and to find methods for determining long-term changes in the oceanic circulation. Specific objectives with this goal are:

(i) To determine the representativeness of the specific WOCE data sets.

(ii) To identify those oceanographic parameters, indices and fields that are essential for continuing measurements in a climate observing system on decadal time scales.

(iii) To develop cost effective techniques suitable for deployment in an ongoing climate observing system.

Within WOCE are three core projects designed to achieve these goals. The "global description" project will involve worldwide hydrographic sections (e.g. Figure 1.9) and fixed-location time-series as well as satellite-based altimetry and routine data from merchant shipping. The second project will concentrate on the Southern Ocean, in particular meridional transfers and interactions with the atmosphere. The third project, the Gyre Dynamics Experiment, will survey the large-scale features of gyres in the Gulf Stream in sufficient detail to further the interpretation of other oceanic observations and to support model development.

## 1.5 ADDITIONAL WCRP EXPERIMENTS

An experiment planned for the mid-1990's under the aegis of WCRP is the Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment (GEWEX). Its scientific objectives (WMO (1987b, 1988b)) are:

(i) To describe and understand the transport of water (vapour, liquid and solid) and energy fluxes in the global atmosphere and at the underlying surface.

(ii) To develop methods of predicting changes in the distribution of water within the global atmosphere and on the underlying surface, which may occur naturally or through the influence of man's activity.

These objectives span all three streams of WCRP.

A further objective of GEWEX is to promote scientific advances and technical developments in observing systems, especially for remote sensing, which could find operational applications in the prediction of weather and climate. The timing of GEWEX has been chosen to take advantage of plans for space stations around the mid 1990's.

The WCRP also includes the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (WMO (1987a)) which has the aims of obtaining, validating and assessing satellite-based cloud parameters, improving algorithms for retrieving cloud properties from satellite-observed radiances, furthering the description of the life cycle and radiative properties of clouds so as to improve parameterization schemes, and deepening our understanding of the effects of cloud-radiation feedbacks on climate. Related to this and to GEWEX is the Global Precipitation Climatology Project, which is summarized in WMO (1987c) and involves the synthesis of geostationary satellite infrared data and polar-orbiting satellite microwave data with conventional rain-gauge data and radar data, to produce an improved precipitation climatology for the globe: details of progress in the project are recorded in WMO (1988a).

## 1.6 THE CHALLENGE OF WCRP

Figures 1.6, 1.10 and 1.11 give examples of why research activities in all three streams of the WCRP are challenging and interesting. Figure 1.6 shows that nearly 50% of the detrended variance of temperatures in Central England (when the annual cycle is removed) in a recent 5 year period occurred on time scales of 10 days to 2 months. Can we predict some of this 'Stream 1' variance? There are many commercial and industrial concerns who would find it useful if we could do this. Figure 1.10 shows that fluctuations in many meteorological parameters occur in the Pacific region which are coherent from season to season and year to year and which fluctuate on time scales of a few years. Can we predict these 'Stream 2' time-scale fluctuations? These may be linked (Lecture 5) to many

irregularly recurring tropical anomalies, including drought in east Australia and floods in coastal Equador and north Peru. Figure 1.11 shows that average global and hemispheric near surface land temperatures have almost certainly fluctuated appreciably over the last century (Stream 3). There have also been roughly parallel quite large variations in atmospheric circulation patterns and in ice cover in some regions. Is this a real effect? These fluctuations need to be understood if we are to predict the consequences of say, a large increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide over the next century with any accuracy. A stimulating introduction to the three streams of the WCRP is given in chapter 1 of 'The Global Climate' edited by J T Houghton (1984).

## 1.7 CONCLUSION

We have tried to introduce the vast range of climatic studies and why they are important. In the next lecture we shall explore in outline present-day climates of the major regions of the world including some features of their interannual variability.

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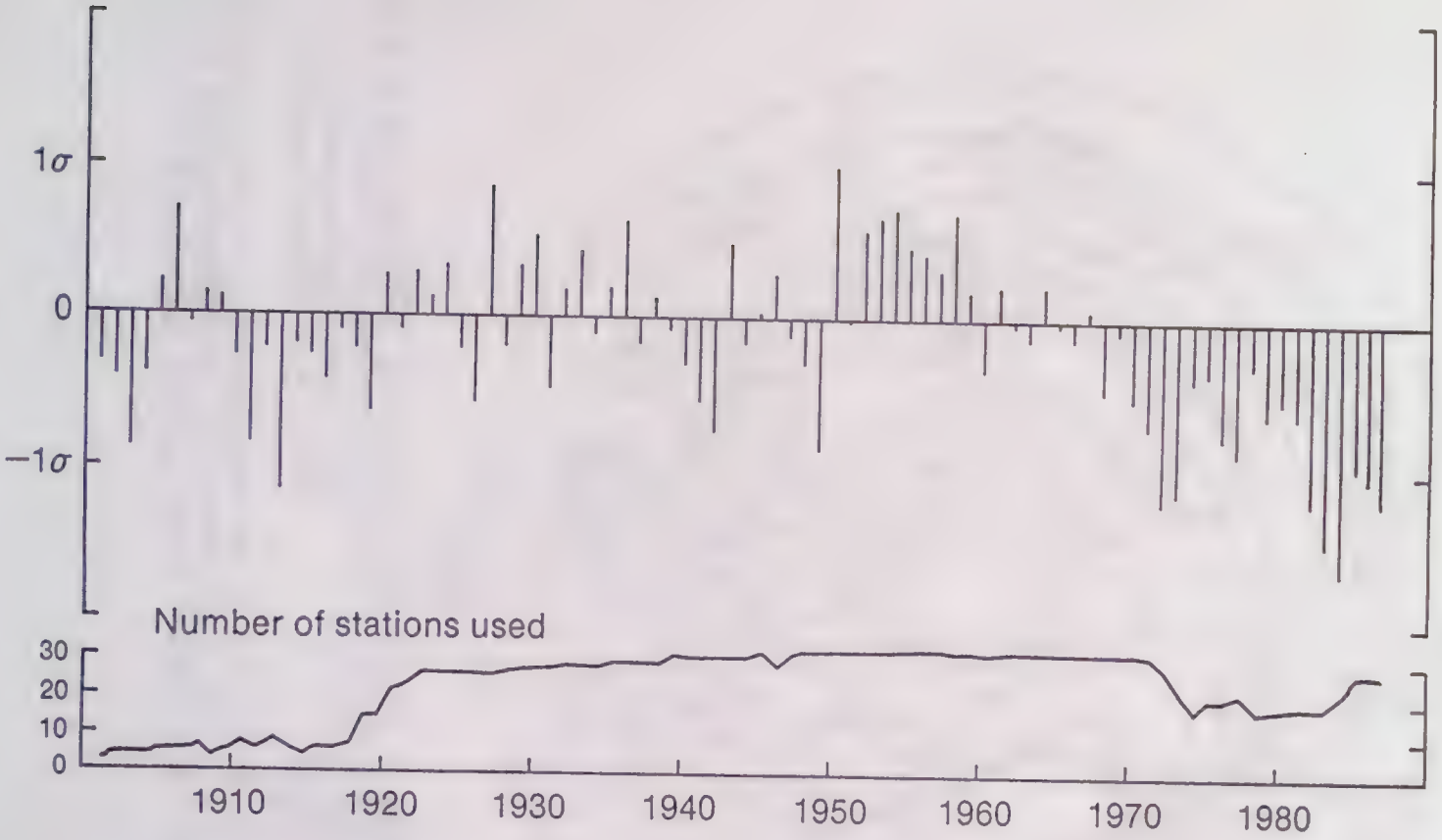



Figure 1.1 Standardised annual rainfall anomalies for the Sahel, 1901-87. Values to 1984 after Nicholson (1985): 1985-87 estimated from CLIMAT reports.

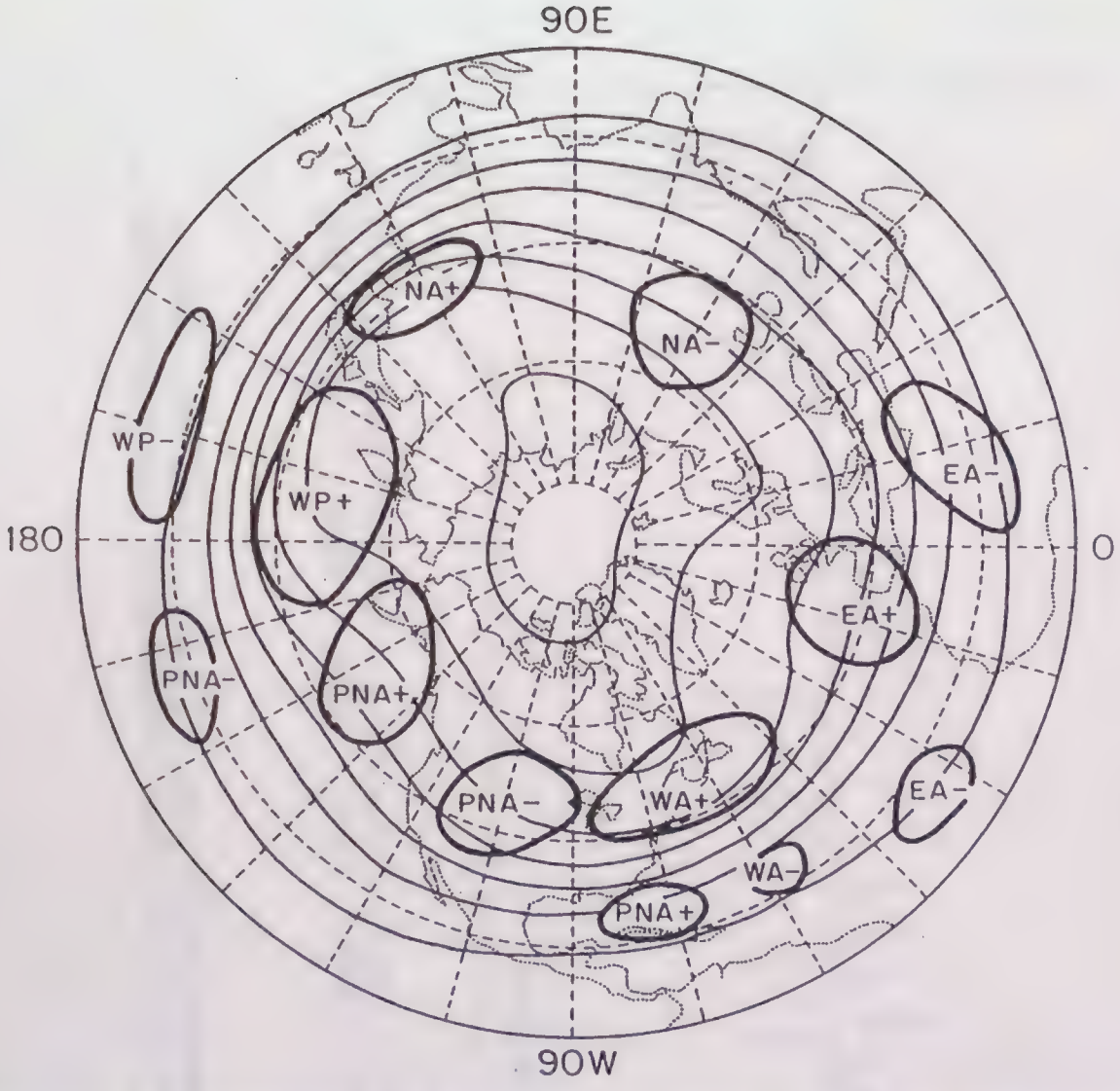



Figure 1.2. Teleconnections in Oregon State University AGCM also seen in a similar way in the atmosphere in northern winter. After Qiu and Esbensen (1984).
"PNA" : Pacific-North American pattern. "WP" : West Pacific pattern.
"EA" : East Atlantic pattern. "WA" : West Atlantic pattern.
"NA" : North Asian pattern.
The map shows the "centres of action" of the teleconnections in the simulated 400mb height field. The isopleths of the $\pm$0.6 correlation coefficient between indices of each of the five patterns and the 400mb height anomaly field are shown as heavy lines.

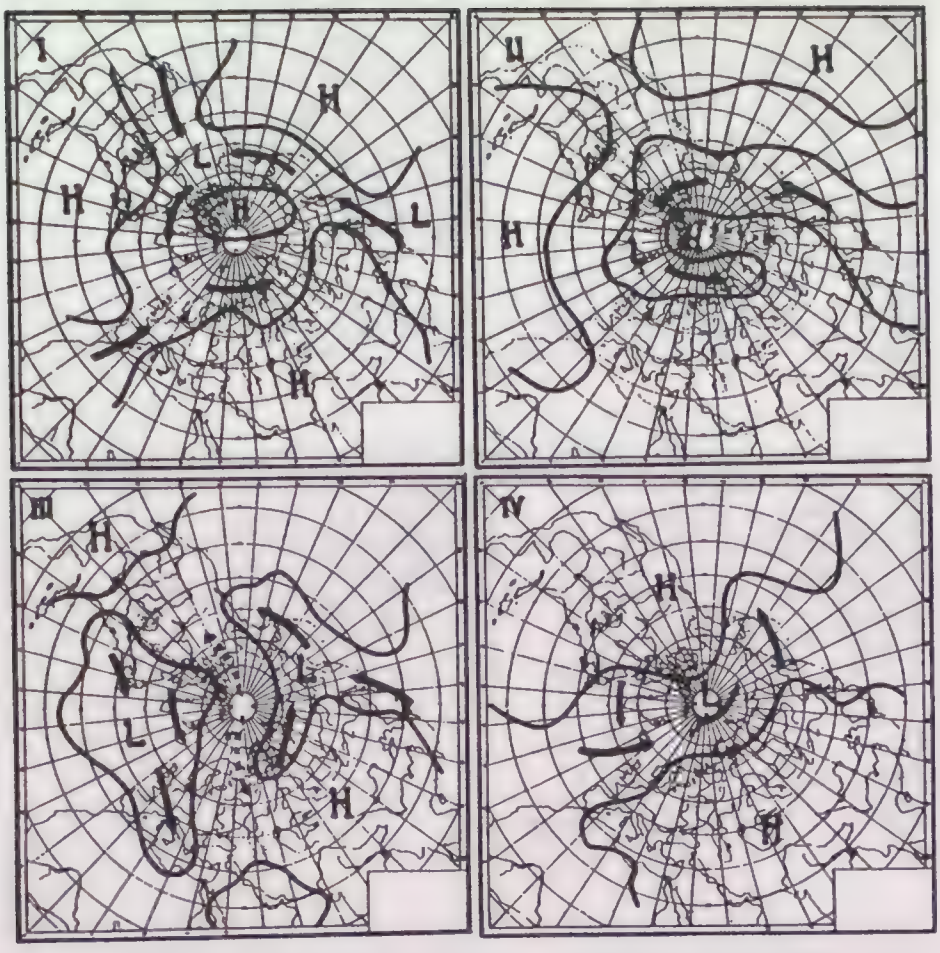



Figure 1.3 Dzerdzeevski's circulation types. (Solid (broken) arrows are cyclone (anticyclone) tracks)

I. Ring of depression tracks around pole and some advection from the South-mainly zonal type.

II. Mainly zonal but strongly meridional in one sector (i.e. blocking tendency)

III. Generally meridional-strong interchange of warm and cold air-general blocking tendency.

IV. Strog flux of warm air toward pole in one sector with depressions moving near central Arctic (Atlantic sector favoured in Winter).

After Barry and Perry (1973)

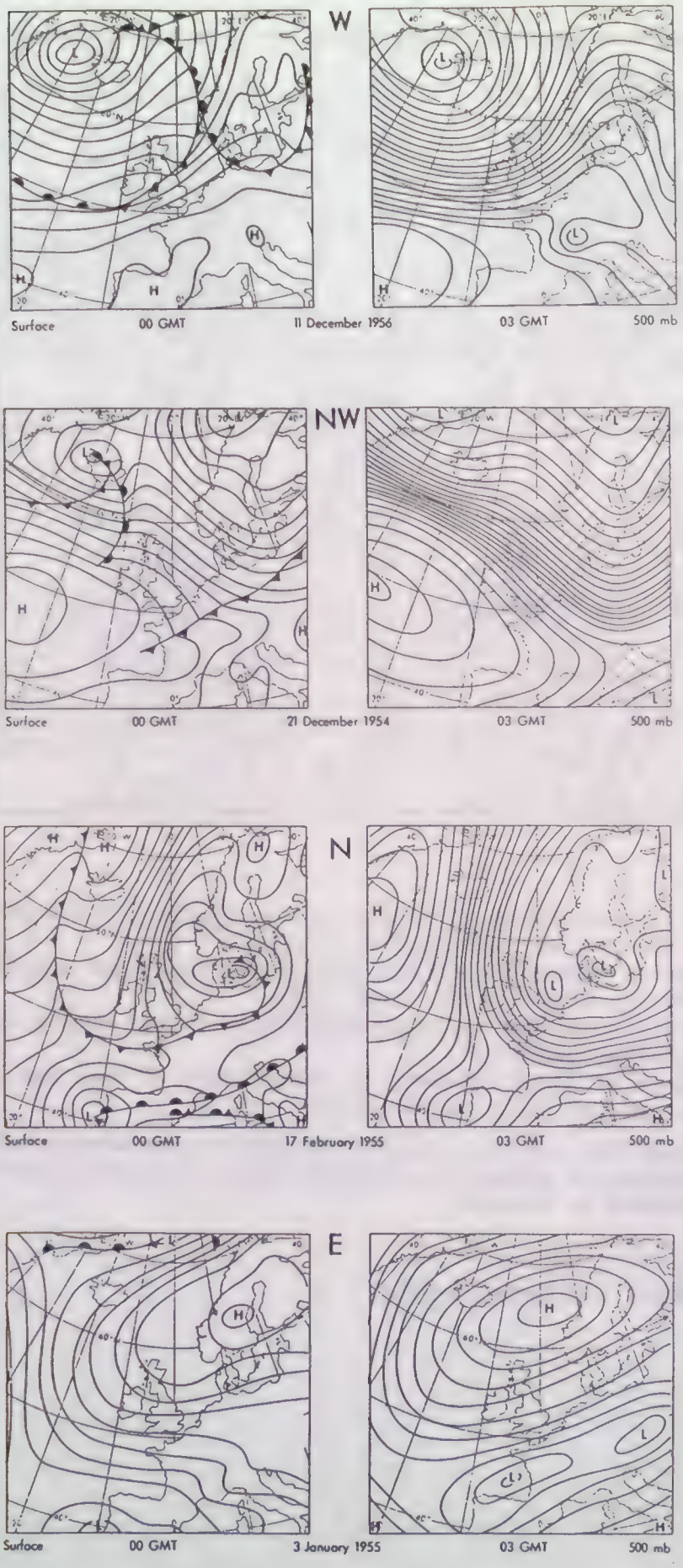
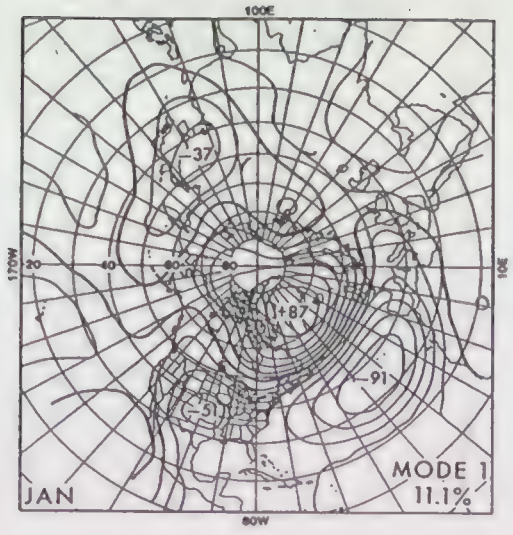
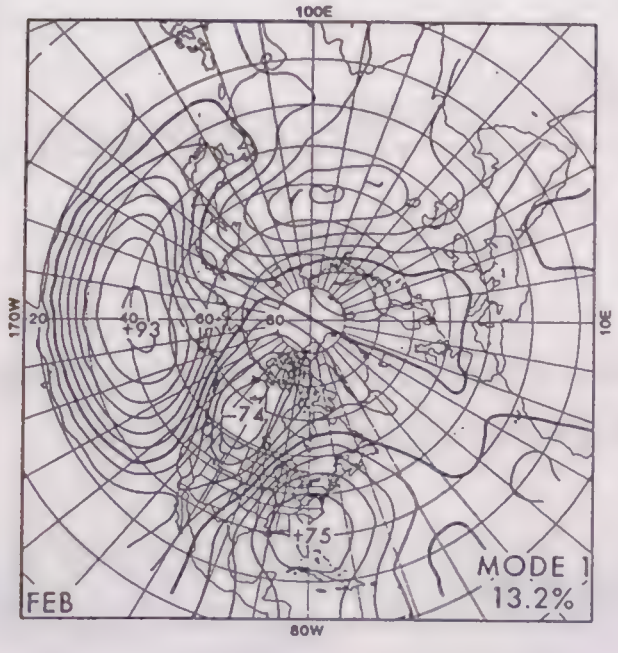



Figure 1.4. Examples of Lamb Westerly (W); Northwesterly (NW); Northerly (N); and Easterly (E) circulation types.

After Lamb (1972).




(A)




(B)

Figure 1.5. (A). The North Atlantic Oscillation at 700mb in January. This is the first principal component and accounts for 11.1% of the interannual variance.

(B). The Pacific-North American pattern at 700mb in February. This is the first principal component and accounts for 13.2% of the interannual variance.

After Barnston and Livezey (1987).

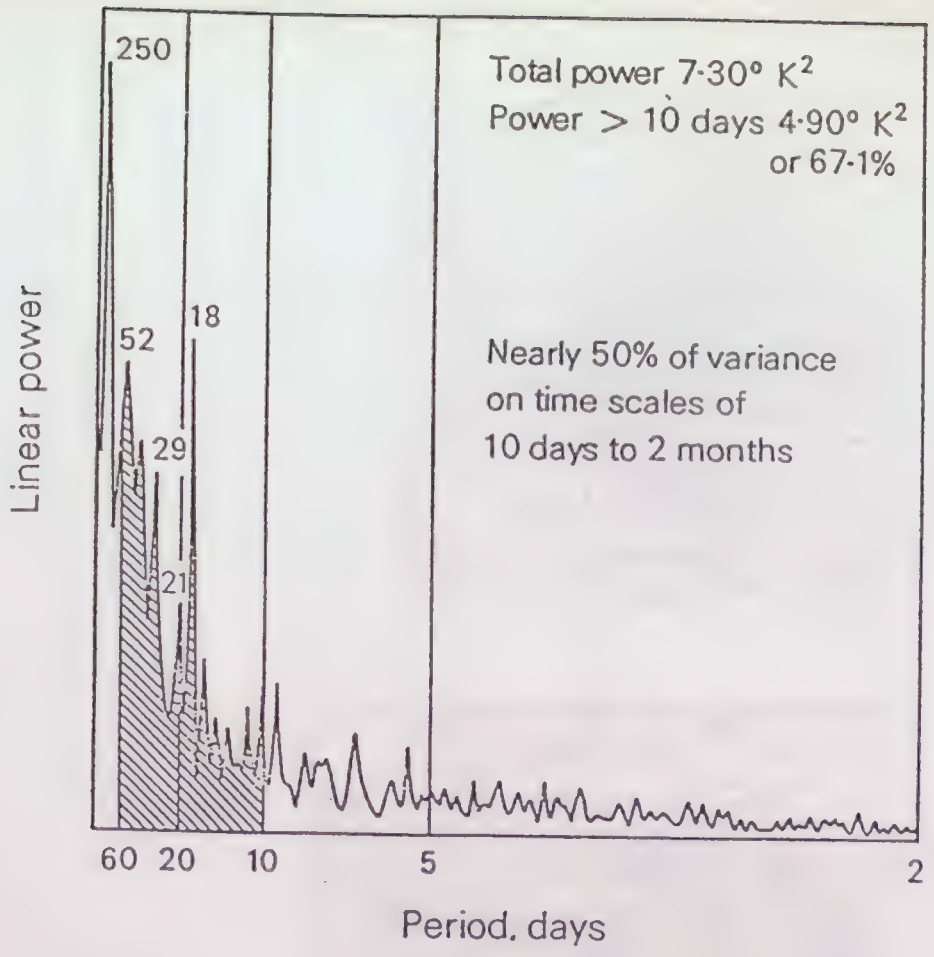



Figure 1.6 Power spectrum of daily central England temperature (1976-1980) with annual cycle removed

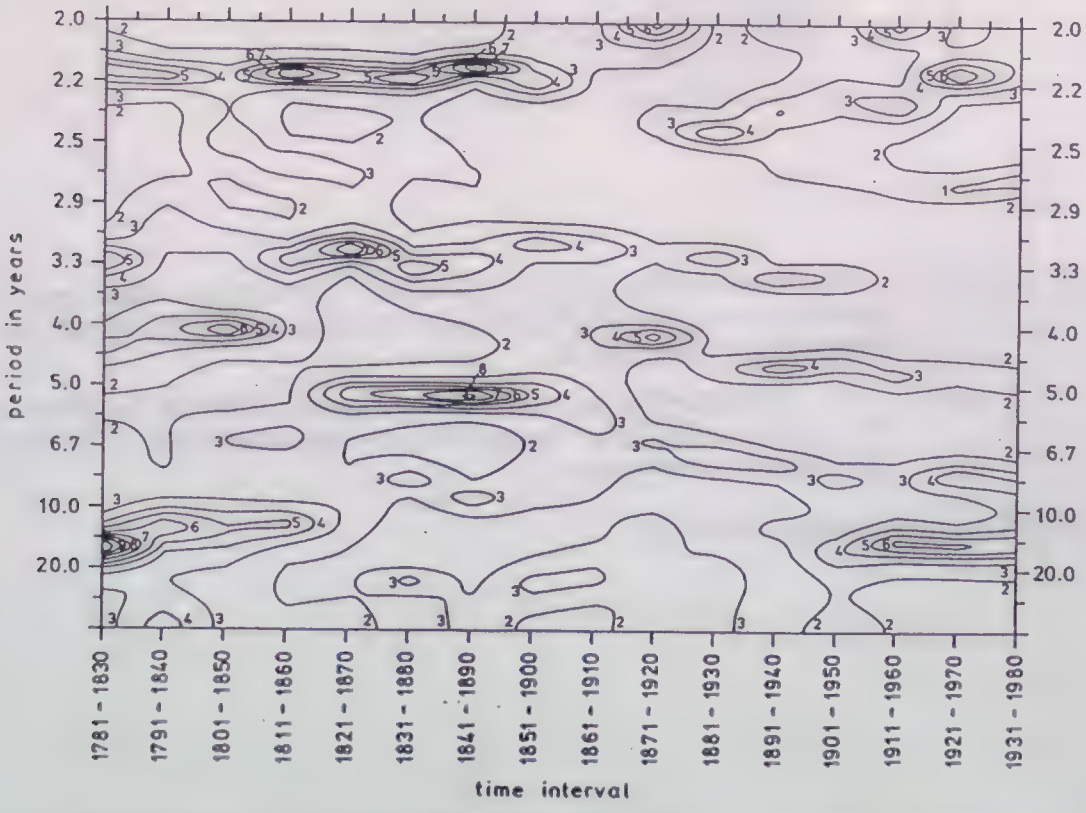



Figure 1.7 Moving maximum entropy spectrum (MESA) of the Hohenpeissenberg annual mean temperatures, 1781–1980, in 50-yr subintervals and overlapping 10-yr steps (each subinterval spectrum 15 coefficients). The numbers denote "contour lines" of the relative variance in tenths. From Schonwiese(1987).

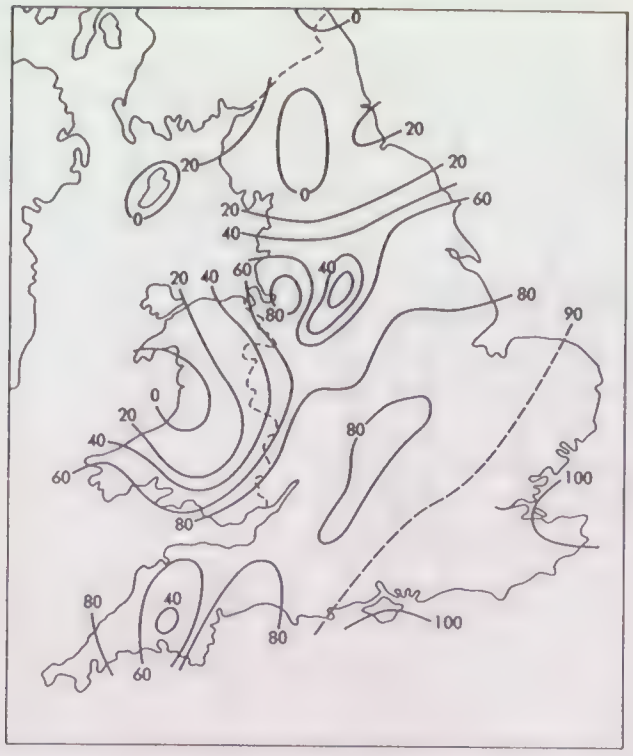
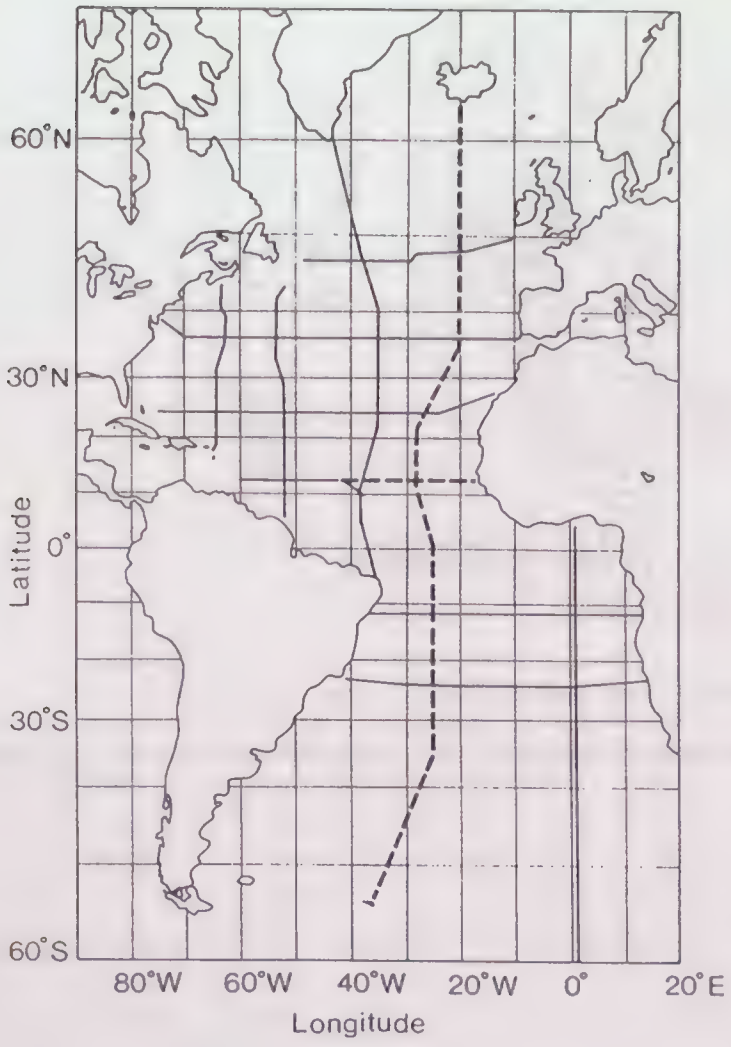


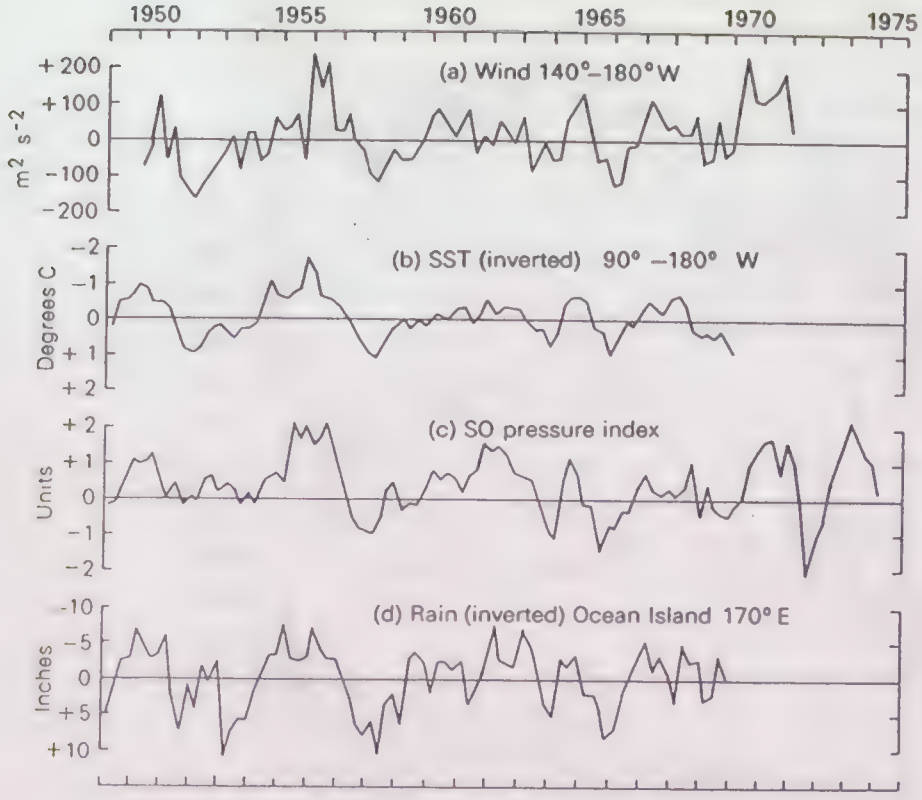

Figure 1.8 Percentage of years suitable for making Tower Silage from maize in England, Wales and the Isle of Man.(From Hough 1978.)




Sections planned (dotted lines) and recently occupied (solid lines) in the Atlantic through the efforts of several laboratories. The North Atlantic coverage is indicative of that required globally.

Figure 1.9

From the Scientific plan for the World Ocean Circulation Experiment (WMO (1986b)).




Parameters of the Southern Oscillation (after Wright 1977).

(a) Zonal component of wind stress, 4°N–4°S, 140°W–180°W, seasonal anomalies relative to 1950–69 mean (after Wyrtki 1975).

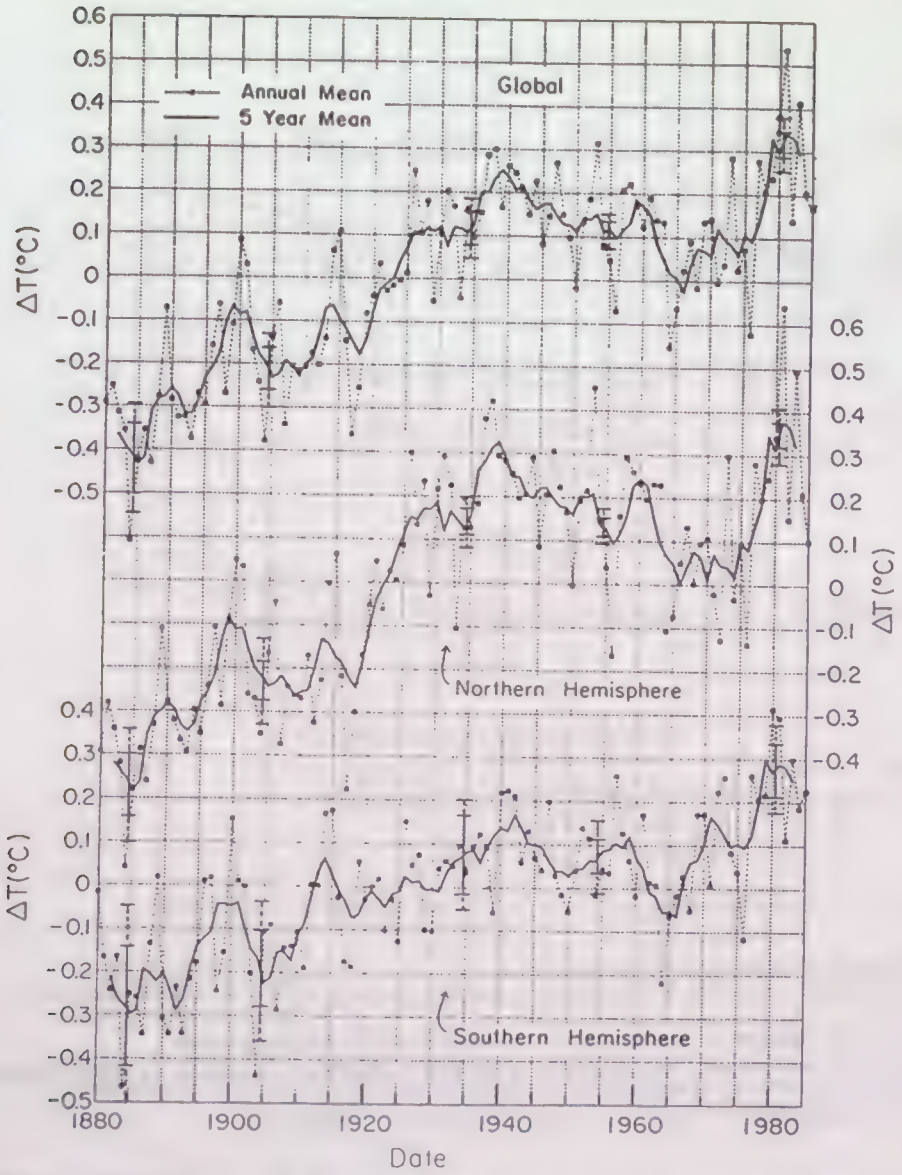
(b) Sea surface temperatures, 10°N–10°S, 90°W–180°W, seasonal anomalies relative to 1949–69 means.

(c) Southern Oscillation seasonal pressure index (southeast Pacific minus N.Australia/Indonesia).

(d) Rainfall at Ocean Island, 0°52'S, 169°35'E, mean monthly anomalies for each season relative to 1950–69 mean.

Ticks along the top and bottom margins denote northern autumn of the year immediately preceding.

Figure 1.10.




Global and hemispheric surface air temperature change estimated from meteorological station records. The northern hemisphere scale is on the right. The 5-year running mean is the linear average for the 5 years centered on the plotted year. The uncertainty bars (95% confidence limits) are based on the error analysis in section 5 of HANSEN AND LEBEDEFF; the inner bars refer to the 5-year mean and the outer bars to the annual mean.

Figure 1.11. After Hansen and Lebedeff (1987).

ADVANCED LECTURE NO 2

# DESCRIPTION OF WORLD CLIMATE

C.K, FOLLAND AND D.E, PARKER

MET O 13

SUMMARY

Major features of the general circulation of the atmosphere, both at the surface and aloft, are introduced and related to thermal and topographic forcings. After a brief review of schemes for classifying regional and local climates, selected climates are described and interpreted in the light of the seasonal progression of the atmospheric general circulation and its variability. Some of the more unusual local climatic features are mentioned.

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The Met O 20 lectures have shown that ideas of a simple symmetric atmospheric circulation are far from correct but nevertheless useful. Fig 2.1A shows an idealised wind circulation for the globe, while Fig 2.1B gives a more realistic picture where the central role of the mid-latitude transient eddies is shown. Fig 2.2 is a representation of the mean meridional circulation in the Northern Hemisphere: The strong upward motion at the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), which varies in position, helps to give rise to a Hadley cell to the north, with descending motion generally around 30°N but further north in summer. A "Ferrel" cell is shown further north still: it is the net result of eddy activity in mid-latitudes on several time-scales. Finally there is a more intermittent Polar cell.

Even in the Tropics, a simple picture of dominant mean motion resulting from a Hadley cell is rather misleading: besides eddy motions, there is a substantial set of more or less east-west circulations whose east-west components are called "Walker" cells (Fig 2.3). These cells are

thought to be driven by the strong longitudinal variations of thermal forcing near the equator. The most prominent cell has a rising branch over and near the Tropical W Pacific in northern winter extending over SE Asia in the northern summer. The descending branch occurs over the relatively cool tropical east Pacific just to the west of S America. Fig 2.4 shows, from Newell et al (1974), estimates of the mean mass flux in the Walker circulation cells: the strongest mass fluxes are only a little less than those in the Hadley cells in Spring and Autumn, (Newell et al (1969)).

A partial explanation of these cells, which affect precipitation in equatorial regions very strongly, lies in the geography of tropical continents and oceans. Fig 2.5 shows the January and July climatological mean sea surface temperature (SST) (for 1951-80), largely derived from the Meteorological Office Historical Sea Surface Temperature data set (MOHSST) (Bottomley et al (1988)). In the tropical Pacific and the tropical Atlantic there is a west-east surface temperature gradient. In the Pacific, the difference in SST at 10°S between 150°E and the S American coast is about 6-7°C in January (southern summer) and almost 10°C in July. In the Pacific, these longitudinal SST differences are comparable to those between the Equator and about 30°S in the same seasons, which of course help to drive the regional Hadley circulation. Not surprisingly, convective activity is usually very weak or non-existent in the tropical east Pacific south of the Equator but this situation is apparently rather unstable and a dramatic warming of the east tropical Pacific can sometimes occur (the El Nino-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) events, Lecture 6). The result of these mean motions is that air-flow trajectories in the tropics are far different from those that could be derived from the simple picture of a meridional Hadley cell superimposed on an otherwise rather zonal circulation.

Fig 2.6 shows a map of global ocean currents which partially explain the SST variations. The currents are of course driven mainly by the pattern of surface winds (Fig 2.7). The tropical anticyclonic ocean gyres are driven by the trade-wind circulations to the equatorward and the westerlies to the poleward. These gyres are associated with strong, warm western ocean boundary currents: the Gulf Stream (GS) and Kuro Shio (KS) in the Northern Hemisphere, and in the Southern Hemisphere the Brazil (BC) and

Agulhas (AG) currents (the latter off S Africa). Eastern boundary currents are cold: the Canary (west of N Africa) and Californian (CC) currents in the Northern Hemisphere and the very cold Humboldt (HC) and Benguela (BC) currents in the Southern Hemisphere. So it is not surprising that SST is very low, for example, off Peru, though upwelling of water from below is an additional factor in all cold currents in tropical regions. Upwelling results from an off-shore Ekman drift which is driven by the prevailing off-shore winds. In the Indian Ocean, currents tend to reverse in direction with the seasons and are driven by the SW (Summer) and NE (Winter) monsoons.

## 2.2 SEASONAL VARIATIONS OF ATMOSPHERIC CIRCULATION

The climate of the world can only be understood by including the seasonal variations in atmospheric circulation, SST, snow and ice etc.

### 2.2.1 January and July pressure and wind fields

Important features in Figs 2.7-2.8 are as follows.

January - Note the subtropical highs; the low pressure trough of the ITCZ near to or south of the Equator; the intense Siberian high with surface air streaming away from it. Being a cold high, the Siberian high decreases in intensity with height and is overlain by the midlatitude westerlies. In the N Pacific and N Atlantic there are deep lows (the Aleutian and Icelandic lows).

In the S Hemisphere (Summer) the subtropical highs form an almost continuous belt, with centres over the cool oceans; heat lows dominate the three main continental land masses.

July - The northern subtropical highs are further north with considerable mean-sea level pressure (PMSL) differences between land and sea in the same latitudes; heat lows exist over the southern United States, the Sahara, and, most prominently, southern Asia. The Icelandic low is still present but rather weak, but there is now very little sign of the

Aleutian low, the east Pacific high being placed surprisingly far to the north. Fig 2.7 shows that the ITCZ moves further away from the Equator over land than over the oceans. Being largely the result of vertical convective processes, the tropical lows shown in Fig 2.8 decrease in intensity with height, unlike the Iceland low, which merely slopes to the west with height.

Note that the ITCZ lies where the trade winds meet. When this is far from the Equator, the air that crosses the Equator turns southwesterly in direction because of the change in direction of the Coriolis force though a westerly component sometimes develops before the Equator is crossed, eg over the Indian Ocean in July. Fig 2.9 shows that the picture of a single ITCZ moving North over the Indian Ocean in summer is far from correct. The apparent double ITCZ structure, if that is what it is, is poorly understood but is the subject of current research. The double structure is visible in the vertical velocity field for northern summer presented by Savijarvi (1988). A possible explanation is that individual zones of tropical convergence tend to occur above individual absolute SST maxima if those maxima exceed about 27-28°C (Gadgil et al (1984)). On Fig 2.5 for mean July SST, there is a suggestion of a SST maximum near the southern of the two convergence zones as well as a further SST maximum adjacent to the coast of the Indian sub-continent.

### 2.2.2 Upper level flow

#### 2.2.2.1 Tropics and Sub-tropics

Figs 2.10 and 2.11 show the 850 mb and 200 mb streamlines during Dec-Feb and June-Aug. At 850 mb, the anticyclonic centres over the oceans are clearly seen in both seasons, overlain by a strong westerly flow at 200 mb. In June-Aug a strong warm anticyclonic centre is seen at 200 mb over N India/Tibet, with cyclonic motion at 850 mb. This vertical structure is the result of convective heating over N India and heating of the very elevated Tibetan plateau (height 4000-5000 m) resulting in a high-level warm anticyclone over this region; this gives rise to a strong 200 mb easterly flow to its south which extends all the way from the tropical W

Pacific to the tropical Atlantic. At the surface, the flow is mainly westerly. Over coastal W Africa from the equator to Senegal Fig 2.7B indicates a south westerly flow at the surface though at 850 mb Fig 2.10 suggests a generally south-easterly or anticyclonic flow. A problem in this region (see section 2.5.1 and Lecture 5) is that interannual and longer time scale variability has been very large in recent decades so different, rather short, data periods may give different results. In the Southern Hemisphere in Dec-Feb, a monsoon-like heat low over S Africa at the surface (cyclonic centre marked C in Fig 2.10) is overlain by a warm 200 mb anticyclonic centre; there is a similar feature over the Bolivian Plateau. To the north and north east of the latter feature, there exists strong mean 850 mb north westerly flow over W Brazil and Bolivia which is evident there and further southeast in June-Aug. This north-westerly tropical circulation is thought to depend on the fact that the Andes form a sharp physical western barrier to flow over these regions (Schwerdtfeger (1976)). This is the only tropical region in the S Hemisphere where low level tropical north westerlies are common, except perhaps near Papua-New Guinea in northern winter.

2.2.2.2 Mid-latitudes (500 mb)

Figs 2.12A,B from Palmen and Newton (1969) show the 500 mb flow in the Northern Hemisphere with its attendant ridges and troughs. Here it is worth mentioning that the Southern Hemisphere 500 mb flow is more symmetrical but there is a marked tendency to a broad trough over the Southern Ocean between about 30°W and 40°E. This feature is associated with long-term SST and air temperature averages up to 5°C below the average for their latitude between 50°-60°S (Hoflich, (1984)). Fig 2.13 shows the mean Southern Hemisphere 500 mb flow in January (summer). Between about 40°S and the South Pole, mean 500 mb flow is of similar strength to that in the Northern Hemisphere winter in a similar latitude band (which of course includes the same month, January). In the Southern Hemisphere the strength of the flow in local winter hardly changes from that in summer because the surface temperature gradient between equator and pole scarcely alters through the seasons.

## 2.3 MEAN SEASONAL SNOW AND ICE VARIATIONS

Ice and snow are an important feature of the mean seasonal variation of climate (Fig 2.14A). Taken together, the regions of permanent sea and land ice in the Northern Hemisphere are currently slightly smaller than those in the Southern Hemisphere, but the maximum seasonal extent of ice and snow in winter is much larger in the Northern Hemisphere. Sea ice around Antarctica fluctuates from a typical minimum extent of $2.5 \times 10^6$ $km^2$ (Feb/March) to a typical maximum of $15 \times 10^6$ $km^2$ (September) (note that the area of Antarctica itself is $14 \times 10^6$ $km^2$). Over the Northern Hemisphere the typical minimum extent of sea ice is about $8 \times 10^6$ $km^2$ (September) with an additional $1.8 \times 10^6$ $km^2$ of land ice contributed by Greenland. However the maximum extent of ice and snow together is apparently about $55 \times 10^6$ $km^2$ in the Northern Hemisphere (February) (Untersteiner (1984)). There are pronounced interannual fluctuations of Northern Hemisphere snow and ice extent (see Fig 2.14B from Hahn (1981)). Reliable measurements of fluctuations in Antarctic sea ice on time scales of several years are just beginning to emerge (Chiu (1983)). Reliable satellite plus conventional assessments of global seasonal cryospheric extent only began about 1973, and there are systematic differences between climatologies based on different observing techniques (Dewey (1987)).

## 2.4 CLIMATE CLASSIFICATION AND WORLD CLIMATE

In one lecture we cannot attempt to cover the climate of the whole world in detail. We shall briefly discuss climate classification and then select a few main regions for discussion. We shall also mention some lesser known but perhaps thought-provoking characteristics of regional climates.

### 2.4.1 Climate classification

The climate of even a small area is composed of a large number of locally-varying climatic elements and it is nearly impossible for two places to have identical climates. So condensation and ordering is needed

to facilitate analysis and explanation. Classification consists of recognising important characteristics which individuals have in common and grouping the individuals into a few classes or types in order to establish generalisations.

Classifications can be based on the way climates are generated, or on their effects eg on surface vegetation or on specialised practical problems like the reliability with which maize can be grown in UK (discussed in Lecture 1). In fact applied classifications are now numerous but are usually of main interest to specific users, though as a result many useful climatic maps of extremes or the frequencies of given thresholds of rainfall amount, temperature, wind speed etc have been produced.

The generic type of classification appeals to meteorologists but it must be simple and there is a danger that the facts of climate may be forced into a preconceived and not wholly appropriate explanatory structure. Empirical classification starts from the observed facts but the basis of division can be arbitrary and its validity depends of course on the use to which it is put.

The best known empirical classification is that due to W Koppen (1931). A considerable number of Koppen's climatic types and subtypes do in fact coincide with broadscale features of the general circulation which allow the numerous and important deviations from a "standard" world pattern to be realistically highlighted. Koppen's system is known throughout the world and was the result of half a century's study and refinement. His classification is quantitative and is based upon annual and monthly means of temperature and precipitation; it accepts native vegetation as the best expression of climate so that many of the climatic boundaries are selected with vegetation limits in mind. It recognises that plant development depends on available water as well as on temperature so that precipitation and evaporation are included in the classification scheme. Because evaporation measurements are not usually available, evaporation is estimated from temperature and precipitation. Many authors have proposed modified schemes based on Koppen's scheme; they mostly differ in the method of expressing the available water for plant growth. Annex 1 to this

lecture describes Koppen's scheme in detail and has been taken from Lamb (1972). It is interesting that Koppen's scheme has already been used to help interpret the results of an AGCM experiment (Manabe and Holloway (1975)).

Fig 2.15 shows a climate classification scheme due to Critchfield (1983) which is rather like a simplified version of Koppen's or Trewartha's system, and we shall use Critchfield's scheme as a background for our description of world climate. Three main climatic classes are defined (subjectively, not rigorously) in terms of monthly mean temperatures, basically according to freedom from frost and the length of the growing season, with an extra highland climate class which includes all temperature classes and can occur anywhere in the world. Arid climates are a subgroup of the three main types where precipitation is less than potential evaporation. Like most schemes, Critchfield's scheme subdivides classes according to whether or not there is a dry season and when in the year it occurs (except for highland climates). Fig 2.16 shows a map of mean annual world precipitation which provides a useful background to the following description.

## 2.5 DESCRIPTION OF SELECTED WORLD CLIMATES

### 2.5.1 Tropical climates

Consider first the air flowing around the oceanic cells of the sub-tropical high pressure belt centred about 25-35°N and S. The air flowing toward the equator on the eastern side of the cells and not far from the latitude of the centre of the cells is stable and dry, and subsides strongly because of the large-scale divergence caused by the Hadley cell. This gives rise to a low level temperature inversion (Riehl (1979)) (Fig 2.17). As a result, the eastern half of the sub-tropical oceans has fairly dry and sometimes sunny climate so that islands such as the Canaries tend to be arid, though orographic precipitation on high mountains can be considerable. The subsidence also gives rise to extremely

arid coastal regions on the western sides of the continents in latitudes 20-30°N and S such as the Kalahari and Chile-Peruvian deserts and the western margin of the Sahara.

The dry Equator-ward moving air picks up heat and moisture from the sea, so that the trade-wind inversion steadily weakens and rises as the air turns more and more to the west. The air beneath the Trade-wind inversion becomes deeper and more unstable and increasingly subject to convection. Riehl shows theoretically and from observations that the trade wind inversion is not a physical barrier: sinking and diverging air from above descends through the inversion as shown in Fig 2.17, the descending motion being forced by the large scale divergence around the high pressure cell. The descending air is heated and moistened from below as it sinks; thus the inversion rises as more air is incorporated beneath it. The air becomes quite rapidly warmer and moister because sea temperatures also tend to rise towards the western halves of the tropical oceans.

As the air approaches the Equatorial trough of low pressure, it meets the corresponding flow from the other hemisphere and is subjected to strong convergence and lifting, and so creates the great deep convective cloud systems of the ITCZ. Although the Trade Winds are mostly dry, fair-weather winds on the eastward sides of the high pressure cells, their Equatorward and western sectors are subject to synoptic-scale disturbances including tropical storms in the western sectors if SST is high enough and the latitude exceeds about 8°. So the amounts of cloud and precipitation in the west are considerably greater though most rain falls near the ITCZ itself. Much of the latent heat energy released in the upward branch of the Hadley cell re-enters the lower atmosphere well away from the Equator and a considerable amount of this energy is conveyed back towards the Equator by the trade winds (thus the trade winds tend to "heat the equator"). Upward motion in the region of the ITCZ is confined at any one time to small areas concentrated in mesoscale convective systems which have a bewildering range of sizes which are poorly understood. The ITCZ follows the annual path of the vertical midday sun but moves much further in some longitudes than in others, tending to move most over continents. So a fundamental division of tropical humid climates is between those regions

near the Equator which have considerable rainfall all the year round (tropical wet climates or equatorial rain climates) and those regions which have a pronounced dry season in the local winter when the ITCZ has moved well away or even into the other hemisphere so that the region is subject to subsidence from the sub-tropical anticyclone (tropical wet and dry climates).

This difference of climate has a great influence on vegetation and differentiates the jungles, the hardwood forests and swamps of the Congo, the Amazon basin, south east Asia and parts of Central America from the lighter more deciduous forests and tree studded grasslands often called savannah which are typically located to the north and south of the equatorial region. Good examples of savannah exist in South Central Brazil, northernmost South America and in tropical Africa. It is not certain whether the existence of savannah is always caused by drought conditions in winter or whether it is caused by the frequent fires that sweep the grasslands and from which trees do not recover. It is interesting that man himself in recent centuries may have inadvertently created apparently natural savannah. New savannahs are now being deliberately created, especially around the edges of the Amazon jungle.

Much work on the General Circulation and climate concentrates on the tropical and equatorial zone: this is the major source of energy for the atmosphere and it covers about 40% of the world. It is also one of the zones about which least is understood. It was once thought that tropical climates were simple and followed regular patterns but this is now known to be far from correct. Most importantly, the physical details of the climates are not easily explained, especially their tendency to pronounced inter-annual variability.

Africa probably provides the best examples of the expected arrangement of the climatic zones of the tropics, and we shall look at the structure of the atmosphere over West Africa where the arrangement of the climatic zones is simplest. Please refer to Figs 2.7, 2.8, 2.10, 2.11 and 2.18 and note the following:-

a. The Southern Hemisphere south east Trade Winds cross the Equator to become moist south westerlies (sometimes called "monsoon" air). (Fig 2.7B).

b. The north east Trade Winds over the Sahara originate from near the Mediterranean (and their specific humidity is fairly low). (Fig 2.7B).

c. The ITCZ does not normally move south of the Equator in the longitude of W Africa even in winter because the tropical S Atlantic Ocean is relatively cool. This means that the Gulf of Guinea coastal region is wet in the northern winter.

d. Further east in tropical Africa, the behaviour of the ITCZ becomes more complex especially in Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. It is much affected by the high mountains and plateaux of this region and in summer by the Indian monsoon circulation. So this is a poorly understood region - one of the earth's "problem climates".

The vertical structure of the atmospheric flow in the tropical W African region in August and some of its interannual variability is shown as a function of latitude in Fig 2.18A and B (Newell and Kidson (1984)). These diagrams show the zonal and meridional components of the wind through the depth of the atmosphere for two sets of recent years. In one set the Sahel region (Region 5 south of the Sahara desert in Fig 2.15) was wetter than normal and in the other set it was drier than normal. Referring to Fig 2.11, we would expect to see, north of about 5°S, fairly strong upper level easterlies extending from the Asian monsoon circulation. These easterlies are clearly present in both sets. In the years marked wet, the upper easterlies are slightly stronger than in the years marked dry but the sample is too small to be sure of the significance of this. Lower down, there is a pronounced easterly jet near 700-800 mb near 15-20°N which is more pronounced in the dry years. This result is probably due to an enhanced low-level thermal gradient between the relatively cool wet regions near the coast and the more than usually dry region of the North Sahel.

This anomlous dryness should give rise to more sensible heating of the ground and thus the lower layers of the overlying atmosphere should be warmer. A low-level south westerly flow is evident in both wet and dry years between 10°S and 20°N but is markedly less deep and certainly is less strong in the dry years. In fact the ITCZ annually reaches 20-22°N where practically no rain falls; the boundary between the northerly and southerly components of the flow near the ground in August does not seem to vary greatly between wet and dry years. However Fig 2.18B suggests that the flux of warm, moist air from the S Atlantic is weaker in the dry years. In Lecture 5 we present recent research into climatic variability in sub-Saharan Africa in fuller detail.

The detailed mechanisms of rainfall release near the ITCZ are complex and ill-understood but certainly are not solely accomplished by the random occurrence of isolated thunderstorms. Fig 2.19 and 2.20, taken from Hastenrath (1985) quoting Reed et al (1977), show a composite of organised synoptic disturbances, known as "easterly waves", observed during GATE (The GARP Atlantic Tropical Experiment of 1974). When viewed from a satellite, easterly waves can look like a very large mesoscale "cloud cluster" (Fig 2.20C and D) though there are other types of cloud cluster. In Fig 2.19 the surface winds are southerly to the south of the trough line and north easterly to the north, and there is a cyclonic circulation at 850 mb and a trough at 700 mb. The low-level convergence indicated by Fig 2.20A is accompanied by ascent, and by divergence in the upper troposphere (Fig 2.20B). Diagrams of seasonal mean conditions like Fig 2.18A and B are the net result of many individual synoptic features.

Referring back to Fig 2.15, we can see several nearly parallel climatic zones in W Africa. Zone "4" is the western Sahara desert where rainfall is always rare; zone "5" is the Sahel which is placed north of about 10°N in the west of W Africa but which tends to be located a few degrees to the south further east. The Sahel depends, as discussed above, for its rainfall on the northward movement of moist air south of the ITCZ into the region in July-Sep. See also the analysis of water vapour transport presented by Cadet and Nnoli (1987), but note that this was based on a single year, 1979, when the First GARP Global Experiment (FGGE) was

conducted and observing networks were enhanced. Area "3" is fairly wet for most of the year as it is affected by the ITCZ, or the moist unstable air just to its south, for much of the time. The small area "5" in south Togo is sufficiently far enough south in summer to escape much influence from the ITCZ so has a summer dry season. The very wet region "2" around Liberia and Sierra Leone is an anomaly probably partly caused by local convergence due to mountains just inland from the coast, otherwise it would be like area "3". A detailed classification of West African climates is presented by Anyadike (1987).

Atypical of these latitudes is the dry zone of tropical East Africa near the Indian Ocean coast that stretches from about 4°S to at least 10°N. This region has been the subject of much study. The Indian (northern summer) monsoon flow strongly affects this region and the moist easterlies experienced by other continental eastern margins near the equator are replaced by a south-south westerly flow that seems to be relatively dry but does not extend very far inland. This "Somali low-level jet" is described and discussed by Hastenrath (1985). The lack of rain in northern Somalia in the northern summer may result from the influence of the strong seasonal upwelling of cold water offshore near 10°N during the Indian south westerly monsoon season (Bottomley et al (1988)), in addition to the influence of the dry southerly airflow and (Flohn (1987)) topographically-induced divergence. The lack of rain in the south Somalia/Kenya desert region in southern summer seems to be related to an airstream which is derived from an anticyclone over Arabia rather than from the warm ocean.

We shall not discuss the Indian or other monsoon in more detail: please see Hastenrath (1985). In passing one might note that much of India is classed by Critchfield (1983) (Fig 2.15) as a tropical wet and dry climate though the dry season on much of the mountainous west coast is short and there is enough soil moisture during the dry months to support tropical rain forests. The true tropical wet climate starts further east in Burma and Malaysia. A typical example of this climate is also enjoyed by Belem at the mouth of the Amazon. The mean temperature of every month is close to 26°C while average monthly rainfall varies between about 100 and 450 mm. Sunshine averages 5.5-6 hrs a day. So even here a short dry

season exists and in fact only restricted areas of the equatorial regions have a uniformly wet climate eg in the western Amazon basin and in western Colombia on the other side of the Andes north of the Equator. This remarkable climate, which is hardly understood, is uniformly extremely wet; Fig 2.21 shows daily rainfall for a station in western Colombia for the year 1928 which totalled 7089 mm and was remarkably uniformly distributed through the year. By contrast there is a small, heavily populated, dry area in NE Brazil (the "Nordeste") (Fig 2.22) whose climate is again ill-understood but which is being intensively studied (Lecture 5: see also Hastenrath et al (1984); Kousky (1985); Sikdar and Elsner (1987)). Much hardship is quite regularly caused here by drought.

Turning to an ocean climate, the "desert islands" just south of the Equator in the central and eastern Pacific, stretching from near the dateline to the Galapagos Islands, represent one of the most extraordinary of world climates. These islands stretch a quarter of the way round the world and owe their unusual dryness to the fact that a cool sea is normally maintained by the wind circulation so that the ITCZ is almost always north of the Equator. The cool sea near the Equator seems to be maintained by Ekman divergence. However, every few years the sea becomes very warm and the ITCZ moves over the area for much of the high-sun season, giving intense convective activity. Indeed the tropical sea surface temperature maximum, viewed in the north-south direction, tends to move over the islands. Average yearly rainfall totals of 500-700 mm are quoted for many of the islands but this hides the fact that in dry years perhaps only 50-150 mm of rain falls and in the few wet years there may be as much as 2500 mm. These fluctuations are now known to be intimately related to the El Nino-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon which happens sufficiently often that these islands could be truly said to have a bi-modal "almost intransitive" (Lorenz (1968, 1970, 1975) non-seasonal climate (see Fig 1.10 in Lecture 1, and Lecture 6).

Before leaving the tropics, we might note some interesting features of highland tropical climates. Tropical glaciers are surprisingly numerous eg there are many in the tropical Andes, several in Africa in the Ruwenzori Mountains of Uganda and on Mounts Kenya and Kilimanjaro above about 4500 m.

Surprisingly there is even a 7 $km^2$ ice cap in the Star Mountains of W Irian, Indonesia, known as the Caarstenz Glacier (McAlpine et al (1983)). This glacier exists at a height of about 4500-5000 m despite being surrounded by the warmest SST in the world. However at about 15°-25°S in the Andes no glaciers are found at these or even much higher levels. The determining factor here is lack of precipitation and lack of cloudiness so only very small glaciers are found above 6000 m. By contrast in the cloudy Andes of Ecuador near 0° one glacier extends down to almost 4300 m. Many tropical glaciers are slowly receding and may not be in equilibrium with the current tropical climate.

### 2.5.2 Subtropical climates

#### 2.5.2.1 Mediterranean climates

On the western margins of the continents in both hemispheres there are regions where summer is dominated by the anticyclones of the desert zone (ie the descending branch of the Hadley circulation); these anticyclones are particularly stable being on the eastern cool sides of the subtropical oceanic circulation. However in winter these areas come under the influence of mid-latitude travelling cyclones and are consequently much wetter with changeable weather. These are the areas of Mediterranean climate, characterised by (1) a concentration of the year's rainfall in winter and sometimes in autumn, while the summers are mainly dry, (2) they have warm to hot summers and mild winters, (3) there is abundant sunshine especially in summer. The five regions where the Mediterranean climate occurs are fairly similar in latitude: the border lands of the Mediterranean Sea stretching for 2500 km into Eurasia, the coastal strip of central and southern California, central Chile, the south western tip of Africa and parts of southernmost W Australia, S Australia and Victoria.

In California and Chile the Mediterranean climate ends abruptly at high mountains 100-300 km inland with mountain-induced desert on the eastern side. The remaining continents of the S Hemisphere only just reach the appropriate latitudes while the Mediterranean Sea itself acts as a

cool-season convergence zone and route for winter depressions. In this respect the Mediterranean is different from the other areas and some of these winter depressions penetrate well into Asia.

It might be thought that Mediterranean summer climates would always be hot but in coastal S California and Central Chile cold offshore currents (see Figs 2.5 and 2.6) keep coasts 10°C or more cooler than inland and more than this by day. The coasts have frequent fogs and low stratus and strong sea breezes set in because of the contrast in afternoon temperature with the hot interior. In the poleward parts of these regions occasional winter frosts occur and as the winter of 1984-5 showed on the French Riviera, snow may on rare occasions reach down to the coast. (Eastern Spanish beaches in January 1963).

### 2.5.2.2 Subtropical Eastern sides of continents

The subtropical eastern sides of continents receive, in summer, unstable or neutral tropical maritime air because subsidence in the subtropical anticyclone on the western side of the oceans is weak and the atmospheric boundary layer is moist. This favours convective activity and abundant summer rain aided by the development of tropical storms, some of which gain the structure of mid-latitude depressions as they pass over or near these regions. There is also a tendency for monsoon circulations to develop, especially in south east China and to some extent in the south east United States. This climate is also represented in all 3 southern continents, ie S Brazil, East Australia and SE South Africa. It differs from the Mediterranean type by having tropical humid climates on its equatorial flank, instead of tropical hot dry climates. These tropical humid regions provide a source of sultry heat in summer rather than the dry heat that exists adjacent to the Mediterranean climates.

In the N Hemisphere, a severe continental climate exists on the poleward flank of the subtropical eastern continental climates which can bring intense cold in winter for brief spells. For example, Nanking in eastern China at 31°N has occasional severe snow storms and frequent frosts in winter. Even further south, in N America, occasional very low night

minima are a feature of the climate of central and northern Florida. Summers are hot, the monthly mean temperature averaging 24-27°C or slightly higher, with high accompanying humidity from the dominating tropical maritime air, giving rather oppressive nights. Annual rainfall is relatively high (1000-1500 mm is typical) and tends to be concentrated towards the summer and autumn seasons, when tropical cyclones are most frequent and when cold fronts moving from the north-west can give very heavy precipitation, especially in USA.

The subtropical area of south east Asia has a complicated, ill-understood, climate. In winter the subtropical branch of the jetstream flows around the southern slopes of the Himalayas, while the polar-front jet flows to the north of the Tibetan plateau; both meet in an upper convergence zone over China (Fig 2.10). This upper convergence zone leads to subsidence over inner China and therefore to generally fine weather in winter. The two jet streams tend to reinforce each other over Japan, forming part of the very strong E Asian trough and giving extremely high wind speeds which can regularly reach 100 m/sec at the 200 mb level. In summer the subtropical jet stream moves to the north of Tibet and the polar front jet recedes further north so that the upper convergence zone over China disappears. In Japan an early summer rainfall maximum occurs, the "Bai-U" rains, followed by a later summer maximum. A similar double rainy season occurs in southeastern China (Lau et al (1988)). Fig 2.23 gives a schematic picture of the surface wind fields over SE Asia in summer (SW monsoon) and in winter (NE monsoon).

### 2.5.3 Mid-latitude climates

#### 2.5.3.1 General Discussion

These are dominated by the influence of the upper westerlies and their attendant troughs and ridges, and on the western sides of the continents the surface westerlies are also very prominent. So the natural subdivision is into maritime and continental climates. The maritime climates are found on the extreme western sides of N America, over much of Europe, and in the S Hemisphere in Southern Chile, in Tasmania and over most of New Zealand.

Truly continental climates are found (in the N Hemisphere) either well inland or on the eastern sides of the continents where extreme seasonal variations of temperature result from their leeward location and the influence of summer monsoonal wind systems. Patagonia in Southern Argentina has some of the characteristics of an eastern mid-latitude climate but the continent is too narrow for the temperatures to be extreme while the influence of the Andes renders the climate extremely dry.

The mid-latitude oceanic climates mostly lie poleward of 40° and stretch well towards the poles because of the influence of ocean currents which are warm or relatively warm for their latitude. In N and S America, the Rockies and Andes cause the climates to occupy very narrow belts only 200-300 km wide with an extraordinarily rapid transition zone to dry climates to the east. For example in parts of Northern Oregon and S Washington states the transition from the mid-latitude oceanic to the inland dry climate can be accomplished in a day's walk. The major characteristics of this oceanic climate are cool summers, mild winters, changeable weather, considerable cloudiness, and mostly adequate rainfall at all seasons. The seasonal emphasis in rainfall tends to be towards late autumn and winter on the extreme western margins, and late summer and early autumn further inland. Over north west Europe, there is a tendency for late spring to be driest, due to a peak frequency of blocking anticyclones at that season. Nevertheless seasonal rainfall deficiency does not cause a dormant period for plant growth.

Unusual aspects of the mid-latitude oceanic climate include the rather dry summers in the north west United States, probably caused by the northerly extension of the N Pacific high over the Gulf of Alaska, and the exceptionally mild winters over large areas of W Europe and the coastal fringe of Norway beyond the Arctic Circle, caused by the openness of these regions to the warmth of the eastern N Atlantic. The oceanic margins also exhibit a strong decrease of temperature with altitude and therefore in the length of the summer growing season. The tree line in NW Scotland is at only about 1000 ft, though man has removed some of the remaining trees and it sometimes appears to be almost at sea level. This very low tree line is also partly a result of the exceptional windiness of the climate.

The Chilean mid-latitude climate is one of the cloudiest in the world as frequent depressions in the stormy sub-Antarctic summers and winters (see Fig 2.13) meet the formidable, steep, highland barrier of the southern Andes. The combination of extreme cloudiness, heavy precipitation and steep mountains has created one of the most remarkable climatically-caused phenomena in the world. Fig 2.24 and Charles Darwin's words (1979 reprint) speak eloquently:- "In Eyre's Sound, in the latitude of Paris, there are immense glaciers, and yet the loftiest neighbouring mountain is only 6200 feet high. In this Sound, about fifty icebergs were seen at one time floating outwards, and one of them must have been at least 168 feet in total height. Some of the icebergs were loaded with blocks of no inconsiderable size, of granite and other rocks, different from the clay-slate of the surrounding mountains. The glacier furthest from the Pole, surveyed during the voyages of the Adventure and Beagle, is in lat 46° 50', in the Gulf of Penas. It is 15 miles long, and in one part 7 broad, and descends to the sea-coast. But even a few miles northward of this glacier, in the Laguna de San Rafael, some Spanish missionaries encountered "many icebergs, some great, some small, and others middle-sized," in a narrow arm of the sea, on the 22nd of the month corresponding with our June, and in a latitude corresponding with that of the Lake of Geneva!"

These glaciers, descending from the mid-latitude Patagonian ice-sheet, set Darwin thinking about the causes of the ice ages in subsequent pages of "Voyage of the Beagle".

The mid-latitude temperate continental climates (here defined as having a cold month under 0°C) exhibit a cold winter, with a durable snow cover, and a warm summer season, so that the annual range of temperature is large. In the maritime climate the temperature of one winter is much like that of another, but wide deviations from the normal seasonal temperature are characteristic of continental mid-latitude winters. These deviations may be as much as 10°C in extreme climates. Summer is the season of maximum rain, which is mostly convective.

A feature of some northern hemisphere mid-latitude climates is "blocking" which is a strong influence on UK weather variations. The characteristics of blocking are interruption of the prevailing westerlies, both near the surface, where easterlies usually replace them; and in the middle and upper troposphere, where the westerlies split into two branches skirting the northern and southern flanks of the blocking region. The transient eddies in these branches appear to play a major role in at least the maintenance of the block (Shutts (1986)). Fig 2.25 from Lejenas and Okland (1983) shows the longitudinal variation of blocking in the N Hemisphere. In the S Hemisphere blocking is rarer but not uncommon near New Zealand for instance. The effect of blocking on weather over a month or a season can be surprisingly large. Fig 2.26 show two contrasting "blocked" and "westerly" Januaries over NW Europe (Folland (1983)). The reasons for blocking are currently an area of much research.

### 2.5.3.2 Continental anticyclones

Blocking is, superficially, a result of stationary large amplitude ridges in the westerlies: anticyclones associated with the block have a warm core. In winter, however, the Eurasian and N American continents have cold anticyclones as a prominent feature of the climate: they are situated to the west of the regional climatological mean upper troughs. These cold anticyclones do not extend very far upwards into the troposphere but bring intensely cold weather to the eastern half of the continents. The Siberian anticyclone is firmly sited well away from the western seaboard and is thus relatively undisturbed by mid-latitude depressions. However the N American winter anticyclone tends to be sited over or to the east of the Rocky Mountains and it is not as stable a feature as the Siberian high, often being disrupted by depressions moving in from the west so that the winter weather of Central and Northern USA is decidedly changeable. Surges in the Siberian anticyclone can bring intense cold to Japan and even to south China (a subtropical climate) so that even maritime Hong Kong (22°N) has suffered air frost in winter.

## 2.5.4 Dry Climates

The essential feature of a dry climate is that the potential annual water loss through evapotranspiration at the earth's land surface exceeds the annual gain from precipitation. Thus dry climates do not have a constantly replenished ground water. Fig 2.15 shows that arid climates cover a broad latitude band and occupy a considerable part of the earth's land surface. The deserts are usually surrounded by semi-arid lands (called steppes in Asia) where rainfall is very unreliable.

### 2.5.4.1 Typical types of desert climate are:-

The tropical dry climates lying at about 20 or 25°N and S with their northern and southern margin at about 15° and near 35°. These climates coincide fairly closely with the subsiding branch of the Hadley cell. The deserts do not usually reach the eastern coasts of continents because in these regions the subtropical anticyclones are much less stable. There are two types of semi-arid regions around these deserts: those that lie on their equatorial side and experience rainfall at the time of high sun due to the northward progression of the ITCZ, and those that lie on the poleward side of the deserts and receive rain from the mid-latitude westerly circulation in winter. In N Africa, parts of the Atlas Mountains and Tunisia can receive 500-800 mm of rain. Typical desert rainfalls are much less (Cairo 30 mm in a year; Yuma, Arizona 80 mm; Calama, northern Chile usually no rainfall in the year). Average summer temperatures are about 30-35°C so maxima are as a rule near 40-45°C, and in the winter months a mean of 10-15°C is typical. On poleward highland margins snow may fall and lie and mean winter temperatures may be similar to those of UK but with a much larger daily range. In the Central Asian deserts, in northern Tibet, China, and parts of Mongolia winter temperatures are much lower.

### 2.5.4.2 West coast margins of dry climates

Here cool ocean currents strongly affect air temperature which can be as much as 10°C lower than normal for the latitude, with a small annual range. There are surprising features of these dry oceanic climates, particularly their exceptional dryness, eg in northern Chile. Lettau and Lettau (1978) have shown that along the western margin of the Chilean desert the juxtaposition of very cold sea and intensely heated land gives rise to a low level jet stream (500 m above the ground) which flows from south to north (Fig 2.27). This is considered to arise from a sea breeze type of circulation which is so strong that it persists by night as well as by day. This persistence results in a strong influence by the Coriolis force, so that the wind tends to blow northwards parallel to the coast in geostrophic equilibrium with high pressure to the west and low pressure to the east but with a sea breeze circulation cell superimposed. The subsiding component of this sea breeze component occurs over a narrow band of ocean immediately adjacent to the coast and is thought to give rise to the long thin, cloudless strip of ocean off the Chilean coast often seen on satellite photographs. So air moving in this jet undergoes a corkscrewing, helical type of motion. The additional effects, if any, of the low level jet on rainfall are not clear.

## 2.5.5 Climate of the South Pacific and Southern Ocean 150E-70W

This is the region least well observed but it is large in extent, covering 120° of longitude, and has some unexpected features. Figs 2.28 and 2.29 show that, in addition to the expected features which can be deduced from Figs 2.8-2.11 and 2.13, there is a zone of cloudiness and cyclogenesis stretching southeastwards from near the Equator across the whole width of the Pacific to mid-latitudes. Thus the ITCZ in the tropical W Pacific appears to be directly connected with the westerlies near Cape Horn. This "South Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ)" represents convergence of air between the almost permanent anticyclone near Easter Island in the eastern Pacific and the more mobile anticyclones to the east of Australia and New Zealand. Detailed studies (Fig 2.29) show that there is a high

frequency of cyclogenesis along this cloud band at least as far south as 40°S with a maximum near 150°W between about 25°S and 35°S. Of course the data are poor and details are uncertain. Some atmospheric general circulation models reproduce this feature quite well, though it has not yet been much studied even in the models. Hurrell and Vincent (1987) have, however, demonstrated the importance of the SPCZ in the energetics of the Southern Hemisphere. James and Anderson (1984) discuss a similar but less permanent feature that may exist in the S Atlantic and does exist in the ECMWF model. Streten and Zillman (1984) give an extensive description of the climate of the S Pacific Ocean.

Another peculiar feature of the southern oceans, including the S Pacific region, is that the mean latitude of the depression belt around Antarctica varies semi-annually (Fig 2.30). This fluctuation is related to a more general semi-annual variation of circulation in the S Hemisphere (Hsu and Wallace (1976)).

## 2.6 CONCLUSION

This long lecture has tried to show that the climate of the world and its variability is very interesting, complex and nowhere completely understood. It is a fitting subject for the World Climate Research Programme. We recommend the 15 volumes of the "World Survey of Climatology" (which include Schwerdtfeger (1976)) for those who require factual detail on specific regions.

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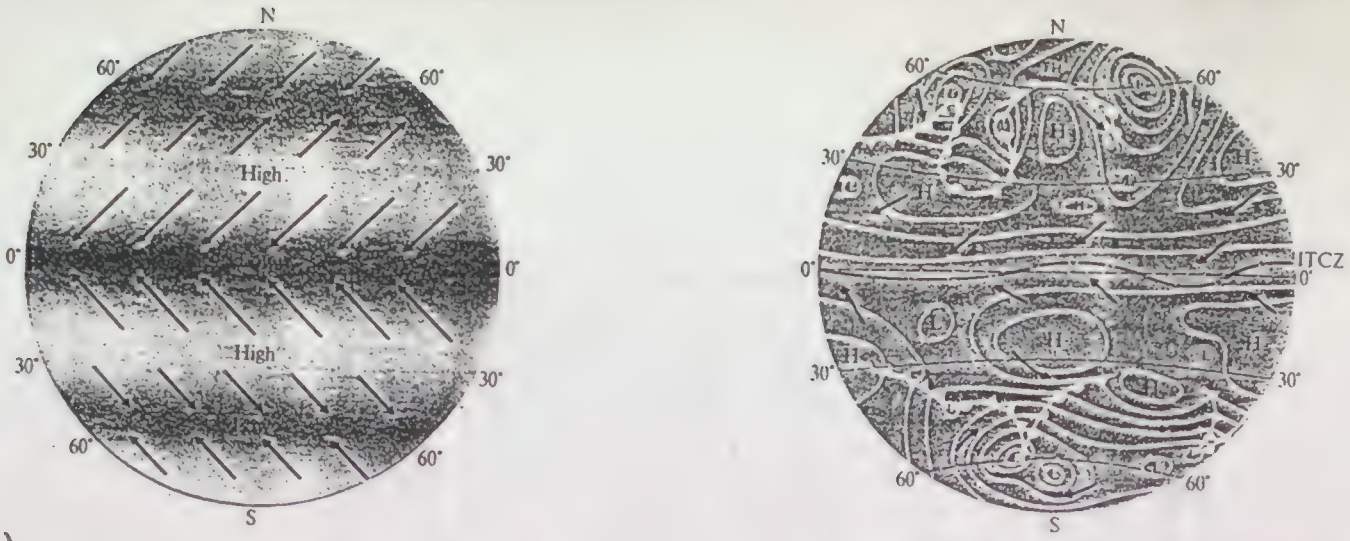
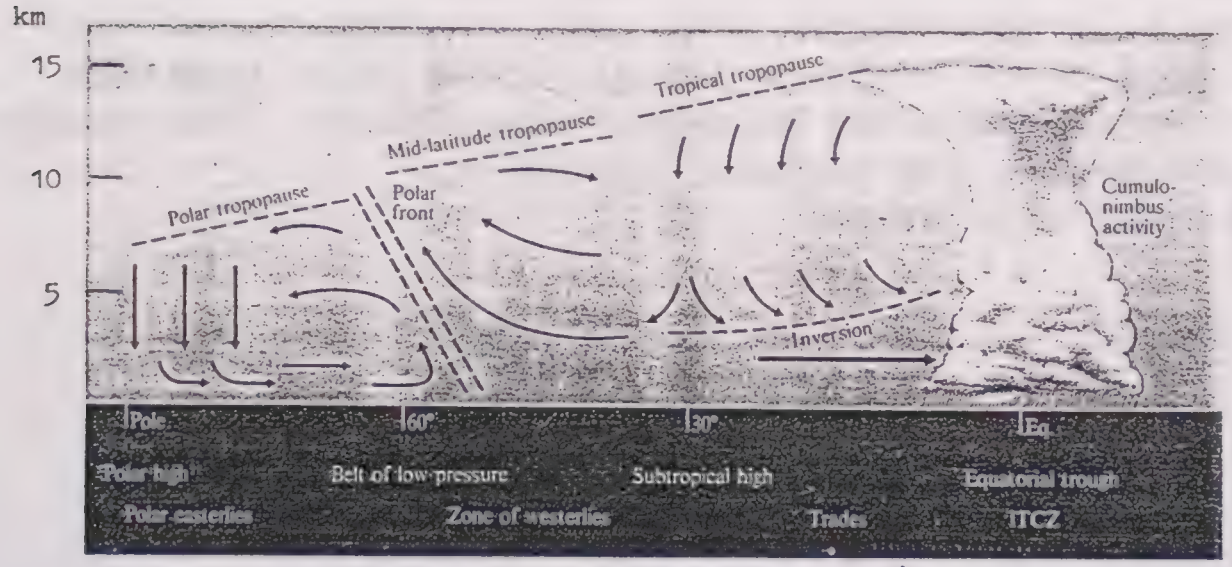



a) Idealized pattern of pressure and winds over the surface of the globe.

b) Typical distribution of pressure systems, winds and fronts near an equinox.

Figure 2.1 After Perry and Walker (1977)




Schematic representation of the atmospheric general circulation, in vertical section from polar regions to the equator.

Figure 2.2 After Perry and Walker (1977)

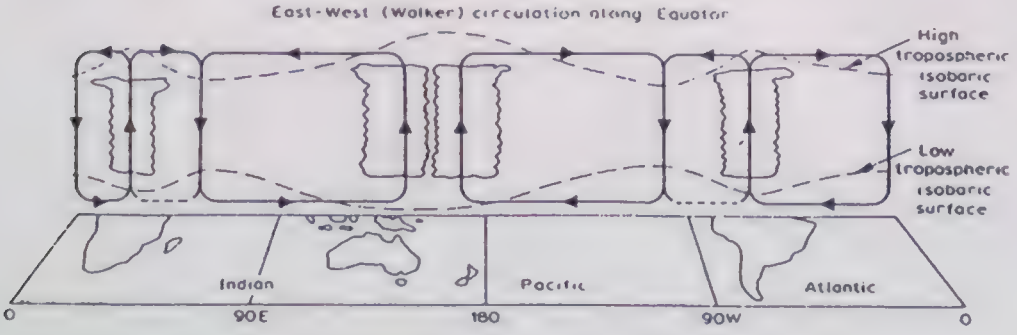



Figure 2.3 From Streten and Zillman (1984)

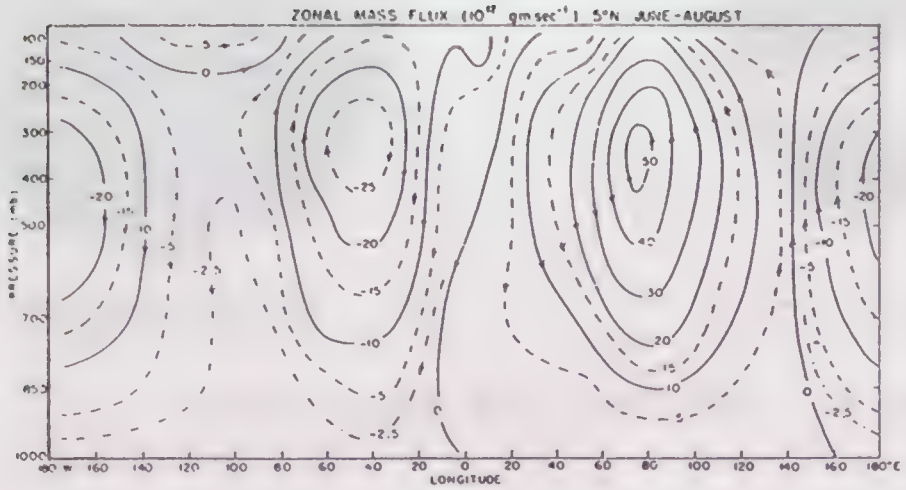



Figure 2.4 A representation of the zonal mass flux averaged over the region 0-10°N for June to August. Contours do not correspond to streamlines, but give a fairly good representation of the velocity field associated with the Walker circulation.
From Newell et al (1974)

AVERAGE SEA SURFACE TEMPERATURES (1951-80)
UNITS ARE DEGREES CELSIUS
MONTH JANUARY

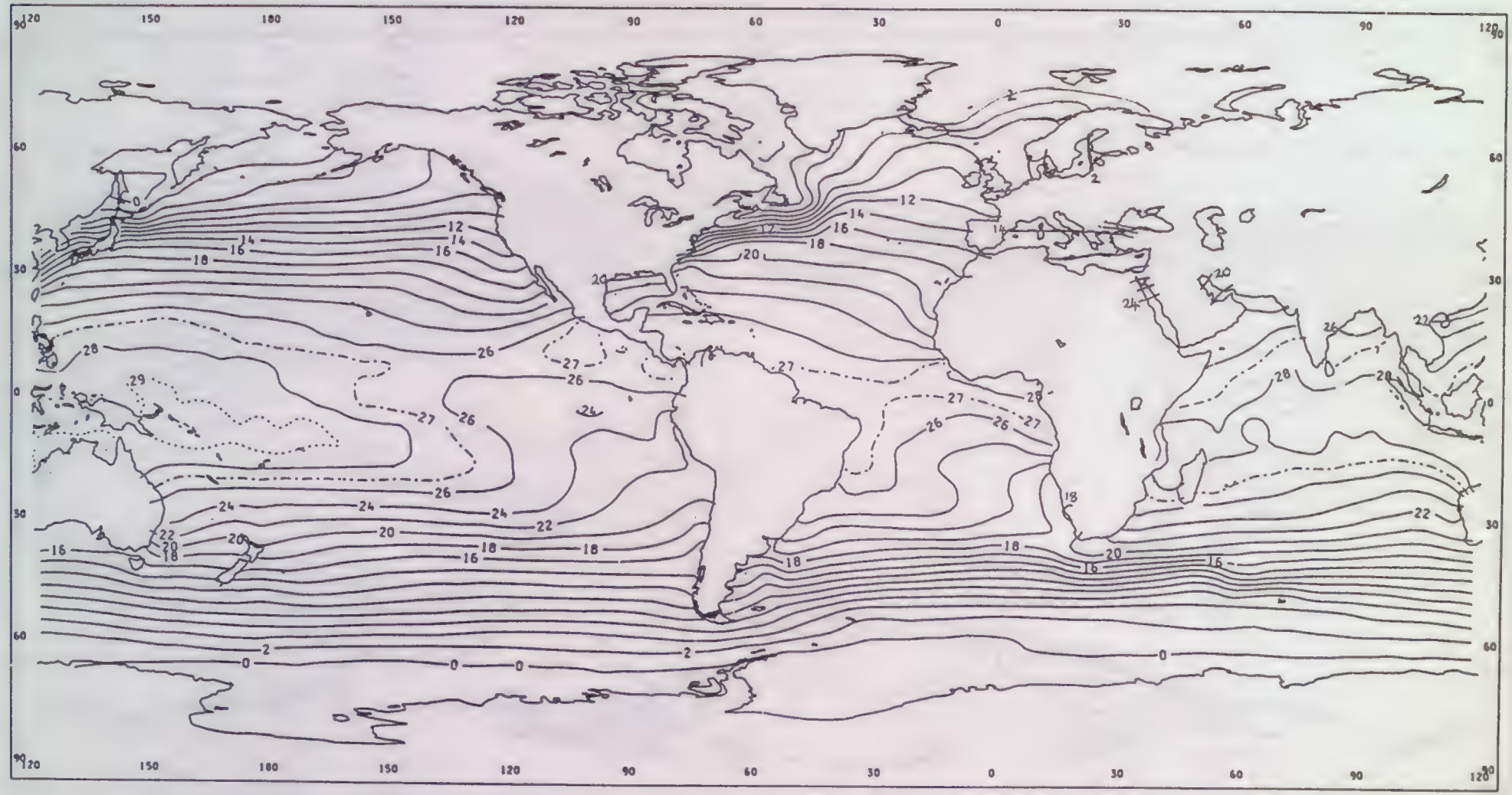



Figure 2.5A.

AVERAGE SEA SURFACE TEMPERATURES (1951-80)
UNITS ARE DEGREES CELSIUS
MONTH JULY

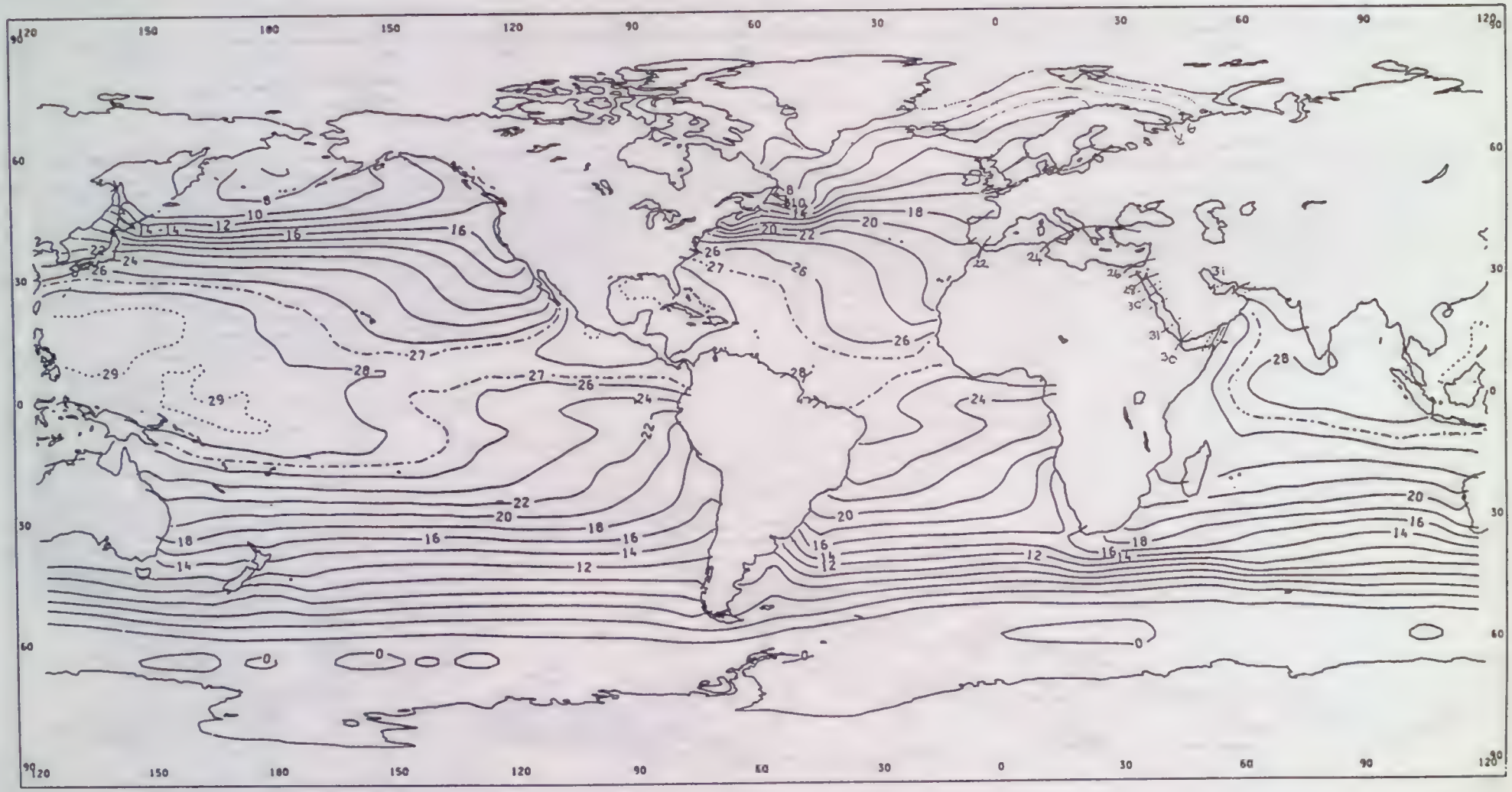



Figure 2.5B.

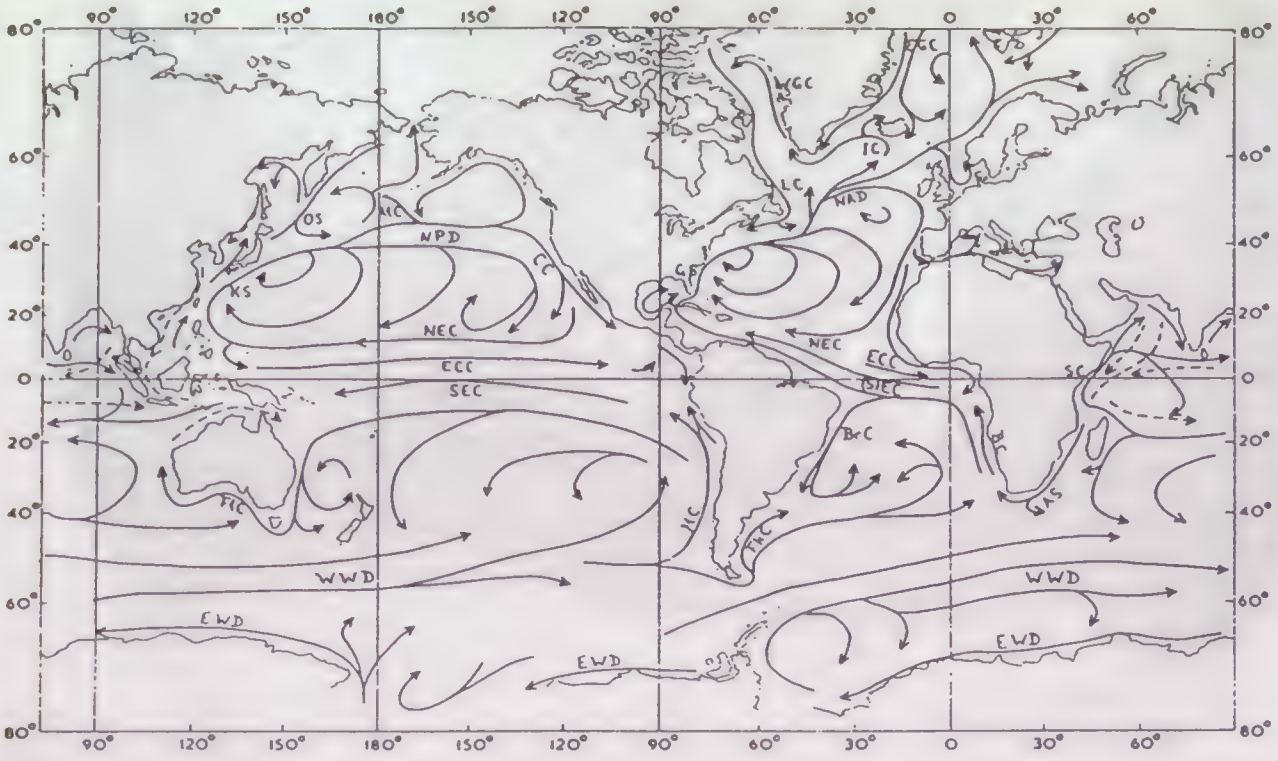



Figure 2.6 Main surface currents of the oceans. From Lamb(1972). The abbreviations for the names of the currents are expanded in table 8.2 of Lamb(1972)

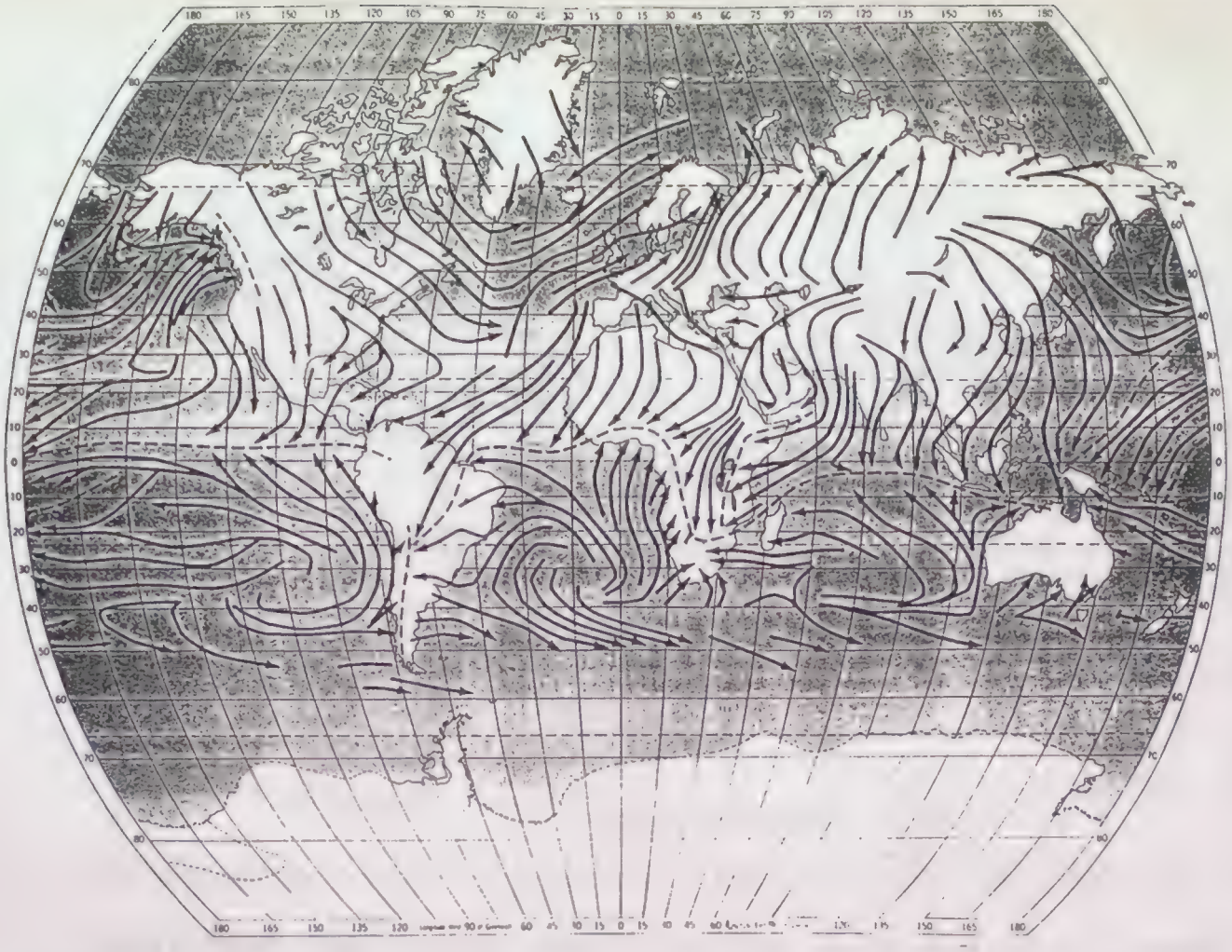


Figure 2.7A Surface winds and ITCZ January.From Critchfield(1983)

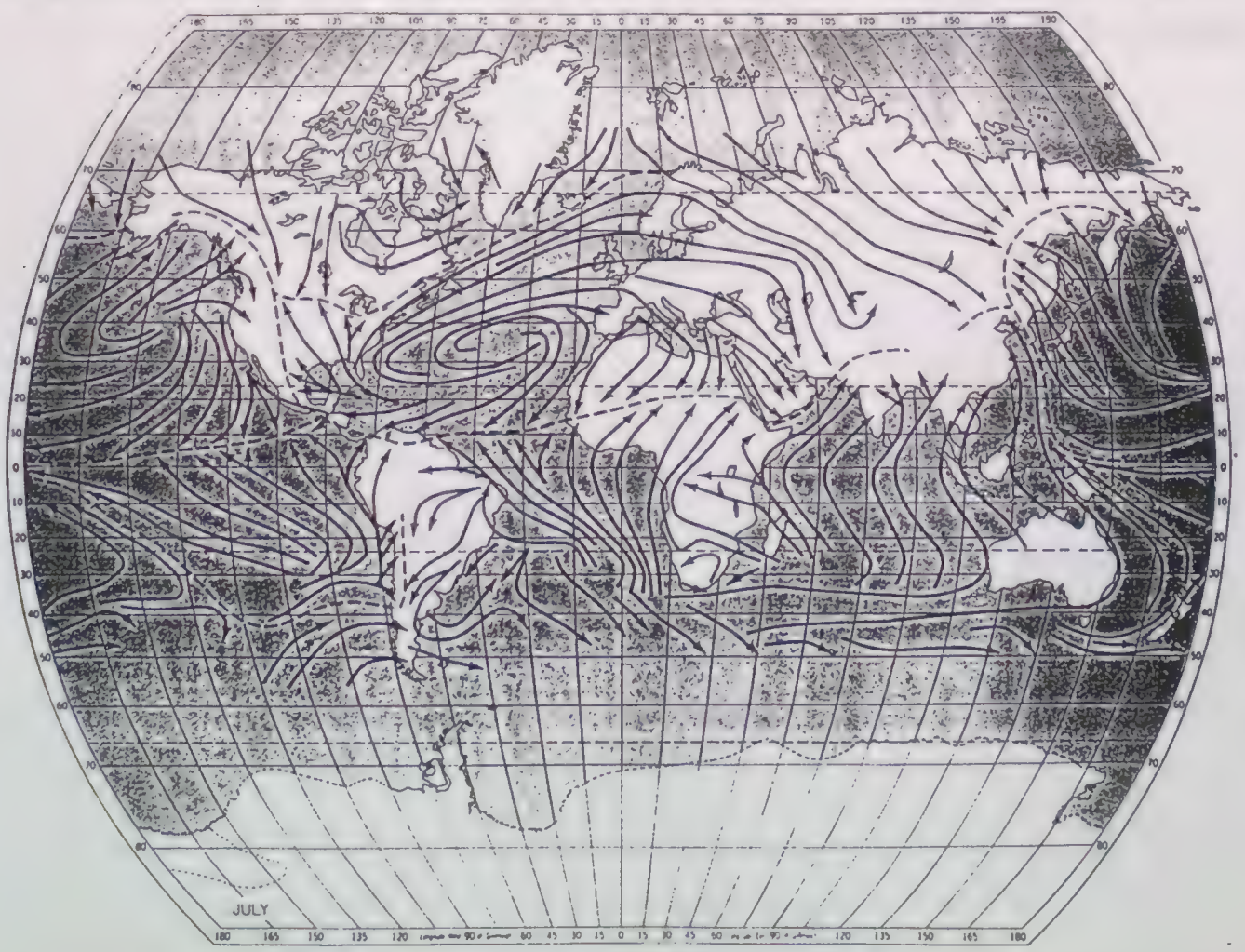



Figure 2.7B Surface winds and ITCZ July.From Critchfield(1983)

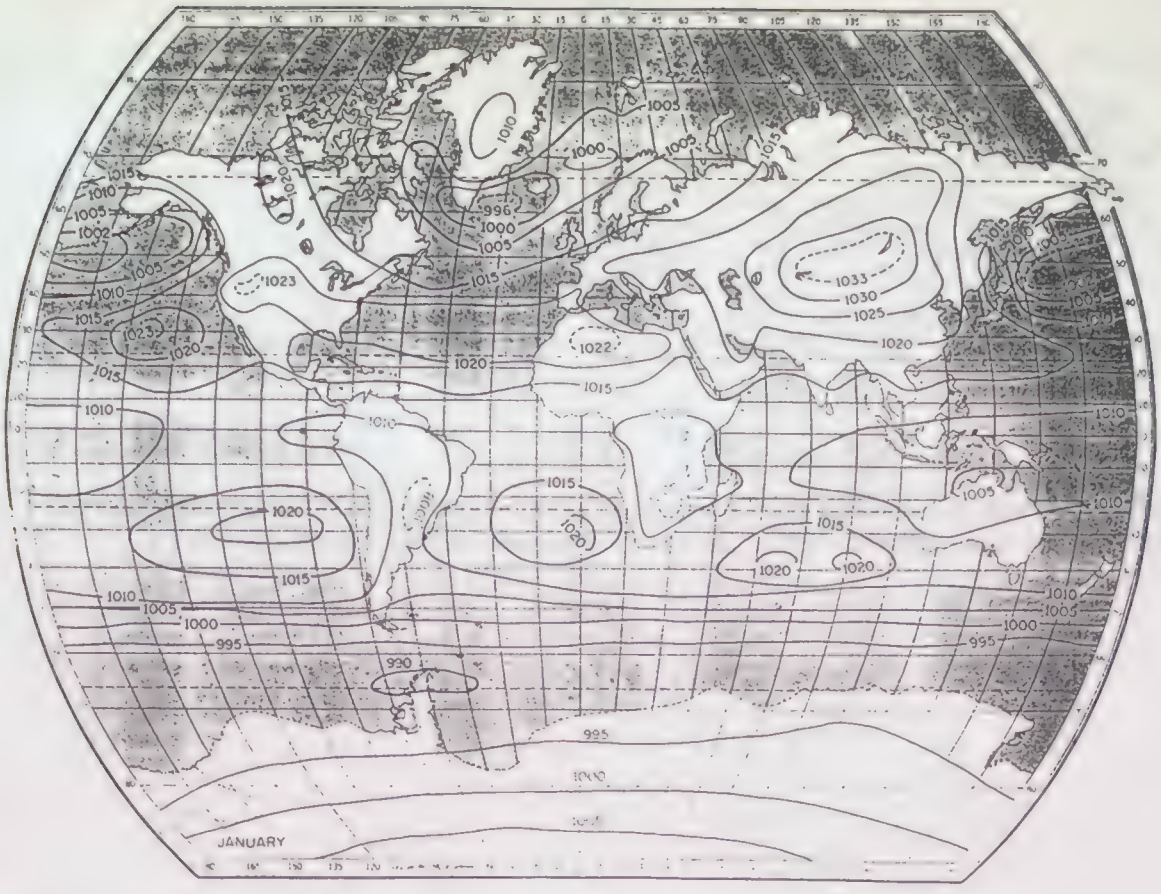



Figure 2.8A World sea-level pressure (mbs) in January. (Modified Van der Grinten projection.)
From Critchfield(1983)

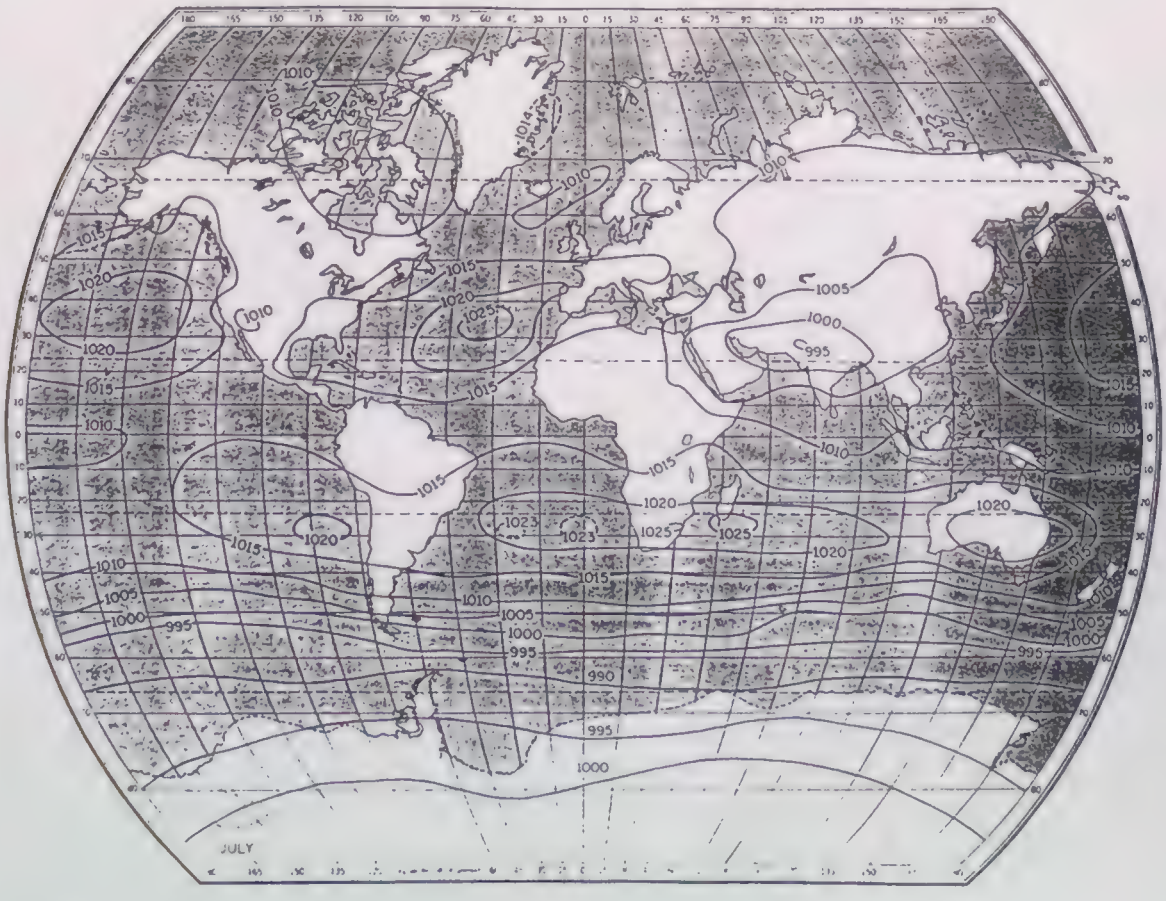



Figure 2.8B World sea-level pressure (mbs) in July. (Modified Van der Grinten projection.)
From Critchfield(1983)

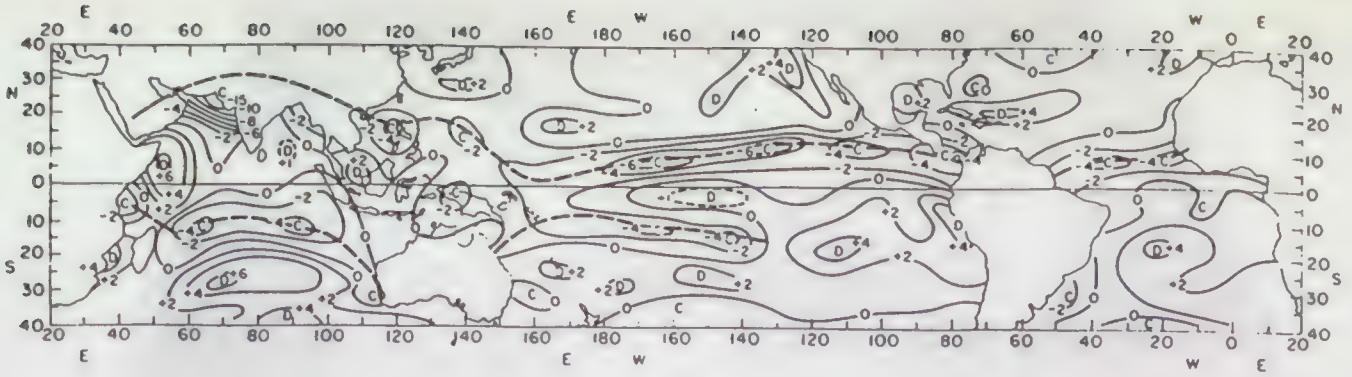


Figure 2.9 Chart of mean horizontal divergence ($10^{-6}s^{-1}$) for July at the surface over the oceans. ITCZ position dashed. After Riehl (1979)

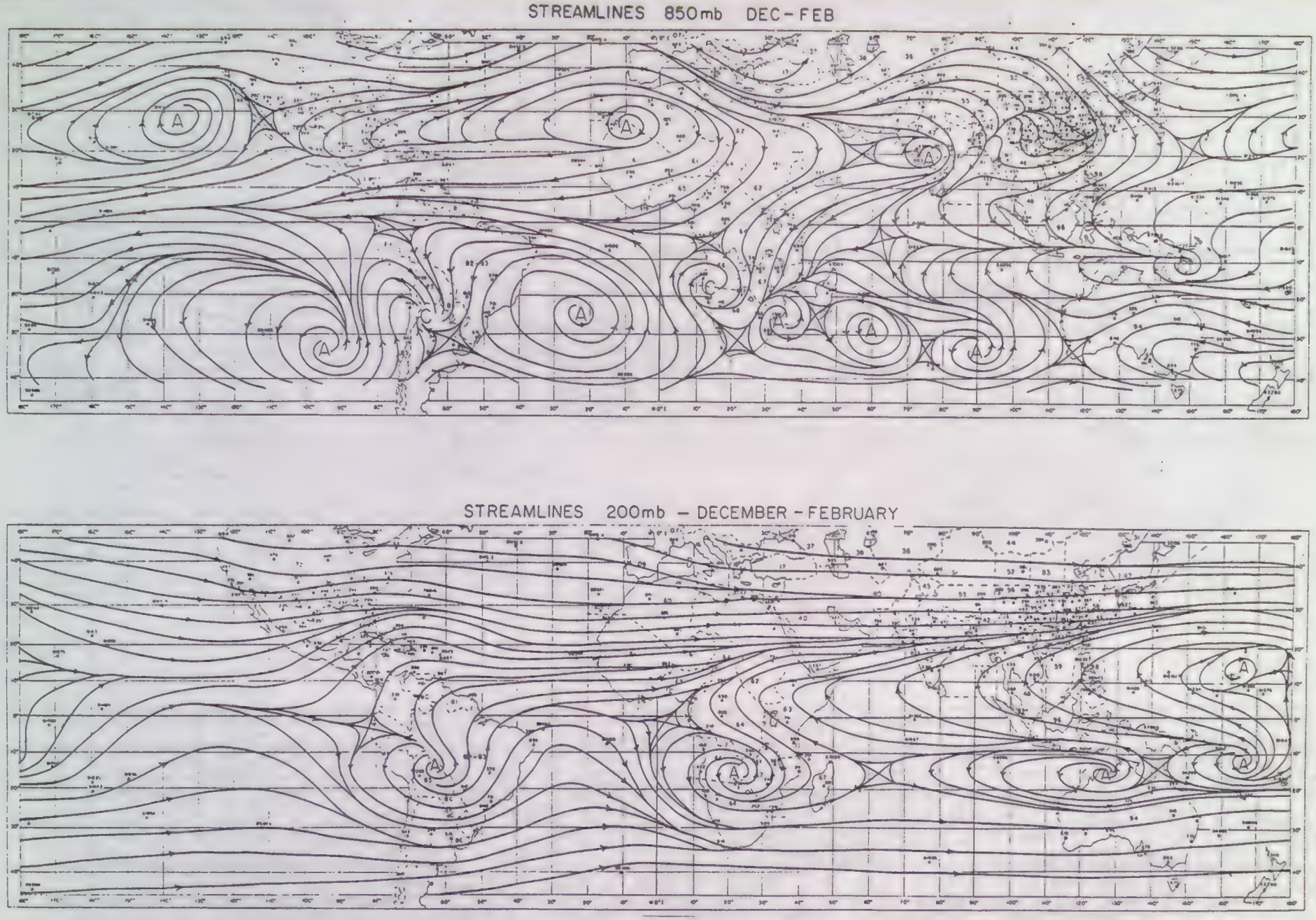
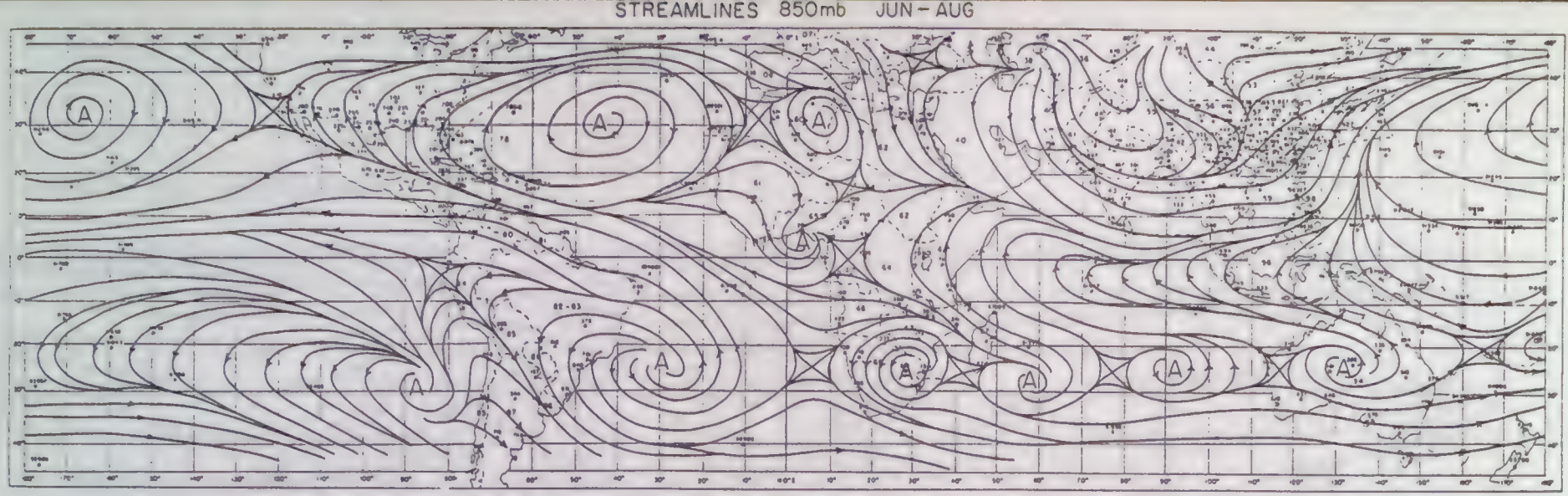



Figure 2.10. From Newell et al (1974).



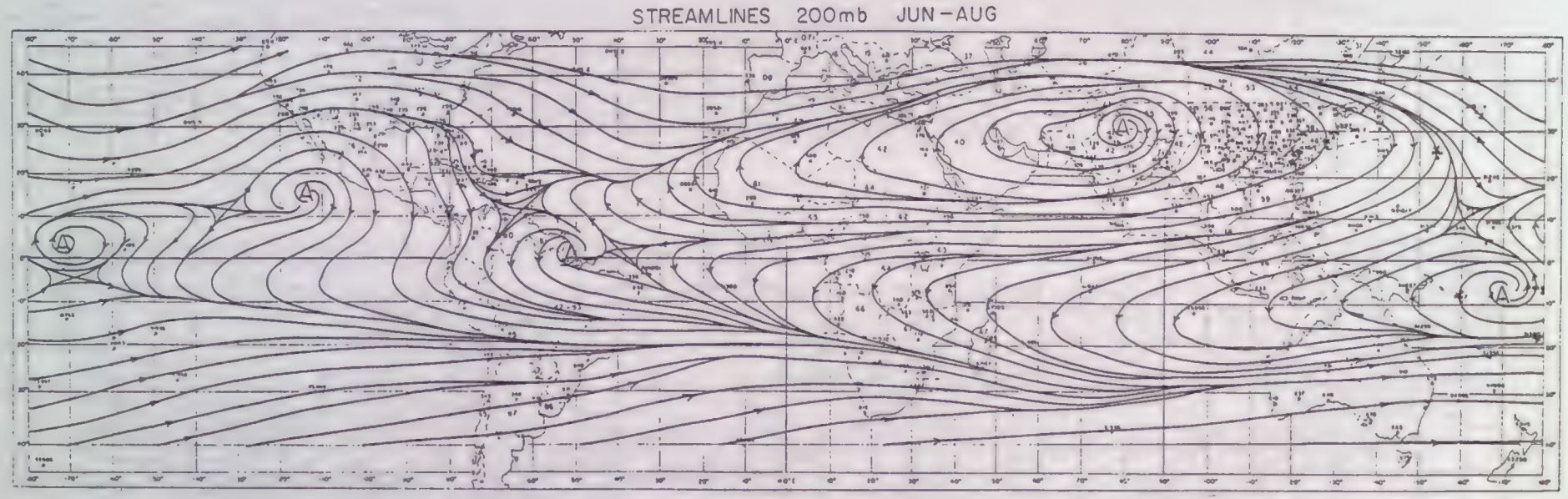
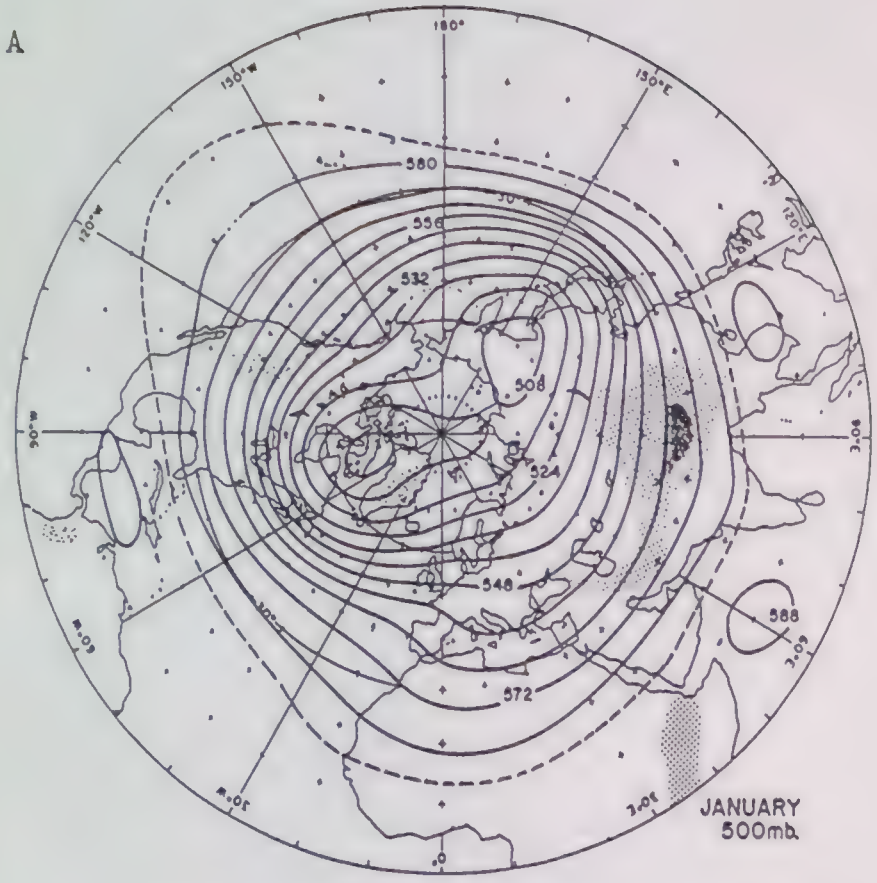



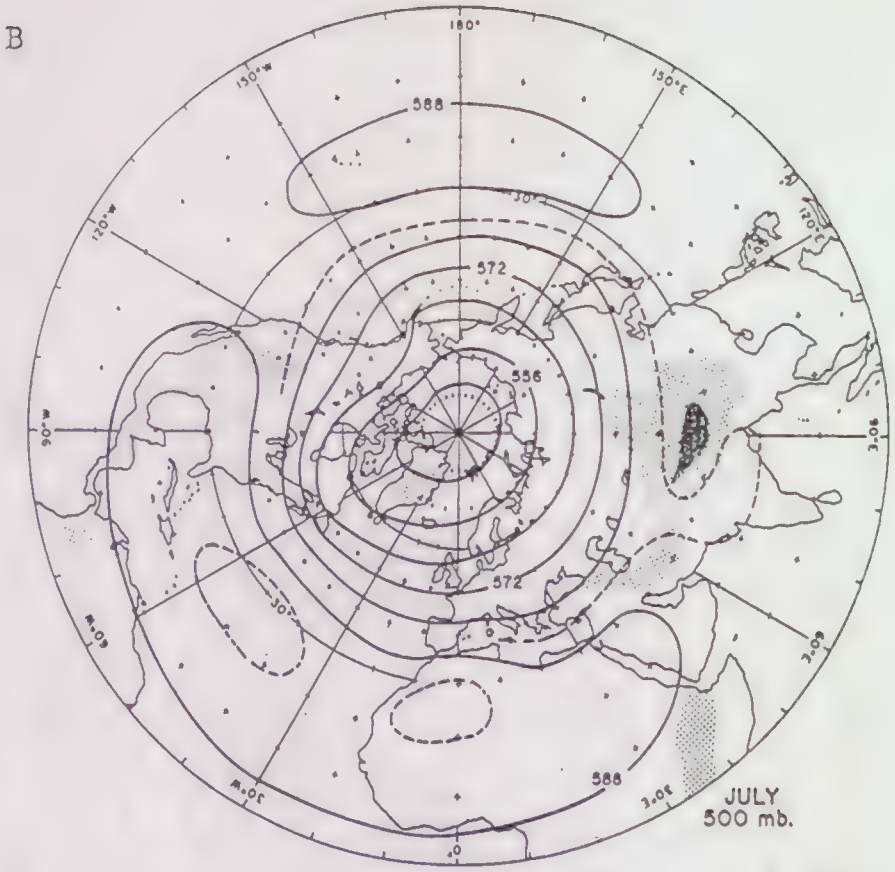

Figure 2.11. From Newell et al (1974).

A




Mean 500-mb contours in January (winter), Northern Hemisphere. Redrawn at 80-m intervals from I. Jacobs (1958). Light and heavier stippling show regions where elevations are above 1.5 km and 5 km (smoothed over 5° latitude-longitude tessera), from Berkofsky and Bertoni (1955).

B




Mean 500-mb contours in July (summer), Northern Hemisphere. (Redrawn, from I. Jacobs, 1958.)

Figure 2.12

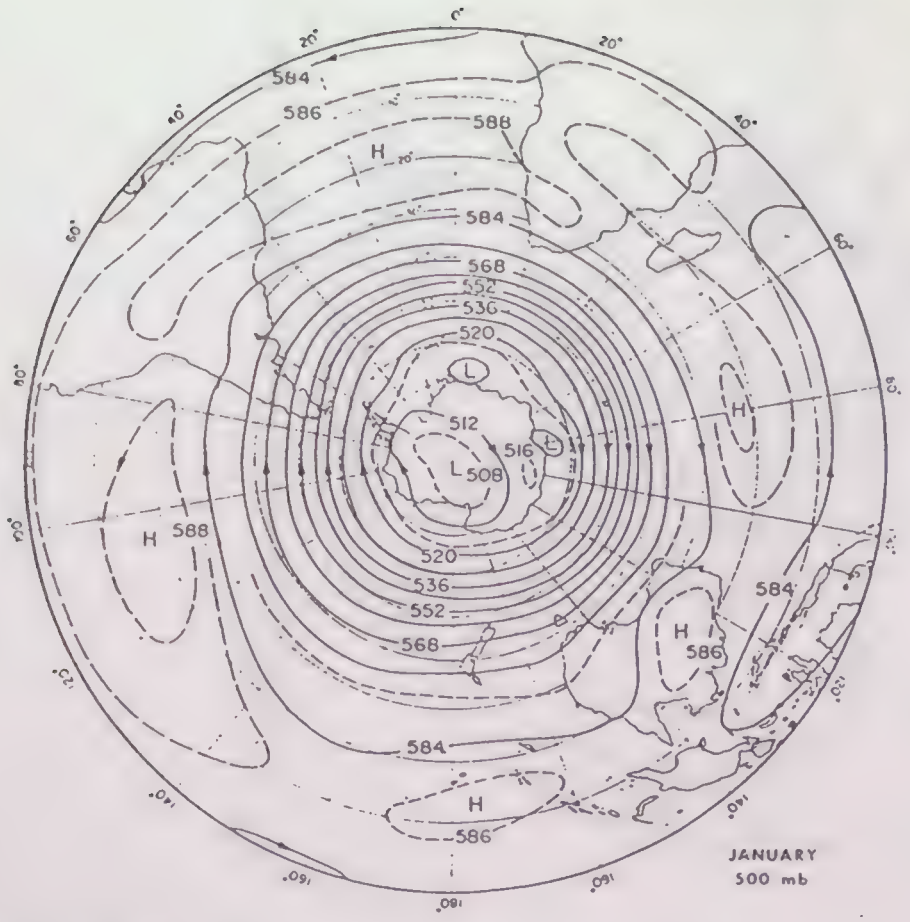
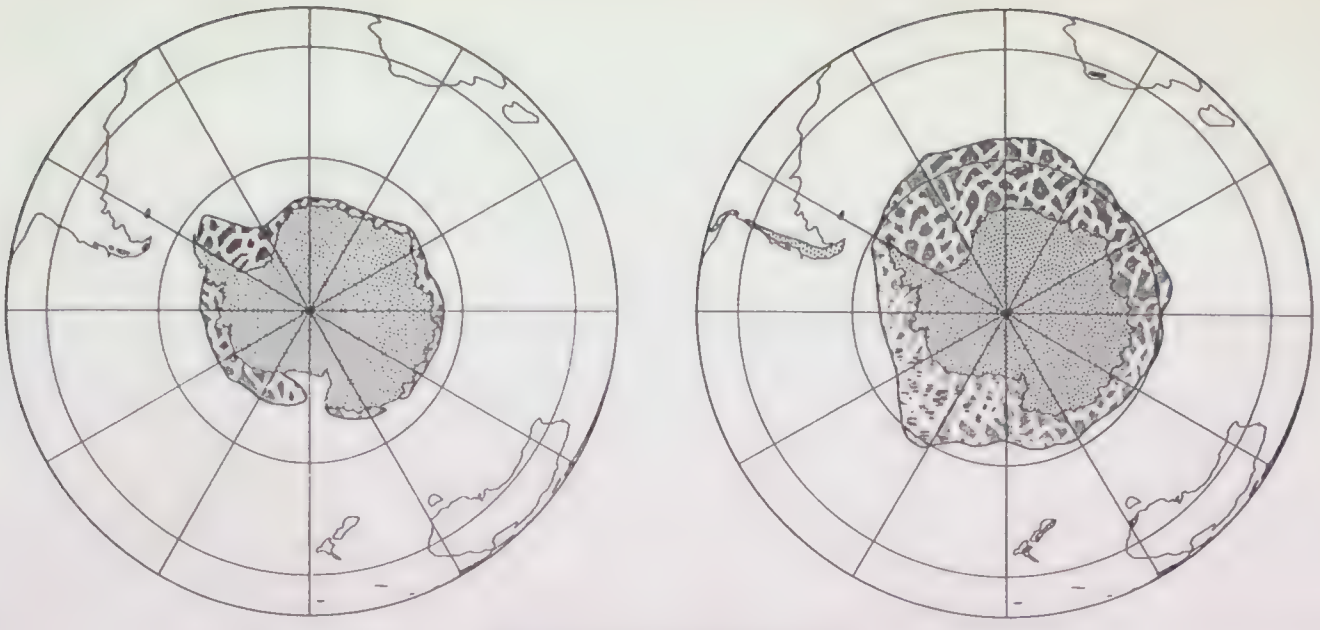
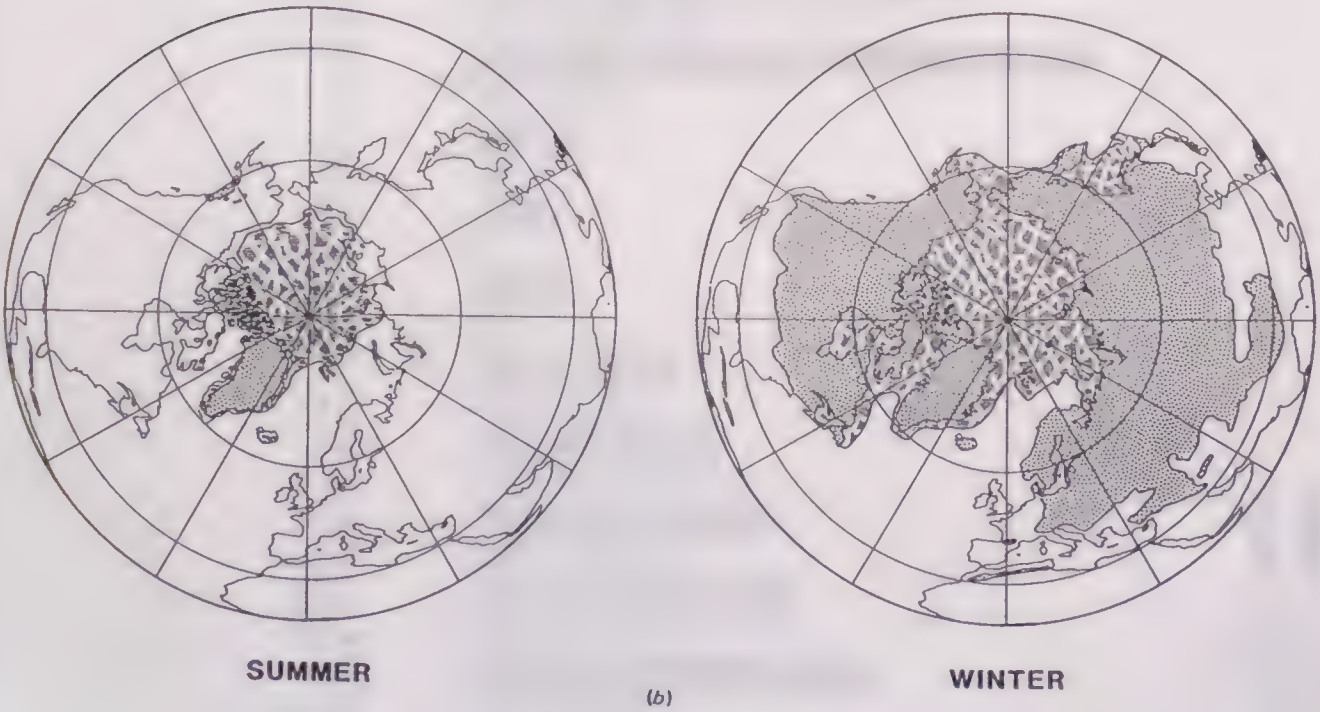



Figure 2.13 . Mean 500-mb contours (80-m interval) in January (summer), Southern Hemisphere. (After Taljaard *et al.*, (1969))




(*a*)




(*b*)

(*a*) Snow and ice in the southern hemisphere at their minimum and maximum extent. (*b*) Snow and ice in the northern hemisphere at their minimum and maximum extent (from Meier, 1983).

The best set of data for Antarctic sea ice was derived from passive microwave images (ESMR on NIMBUS 5, beginning in December 1972). For reasons of accuracy and unambiguous interpretation of these data, the ice limit was taken to be at concentrations of > 15%, which tends to make the total ice extent appear large. Ships reporting the encounter with ice are likely to place the 'ice margin' at a far higher concentration.

Figure 2.14A. After Untersteiner (1984).

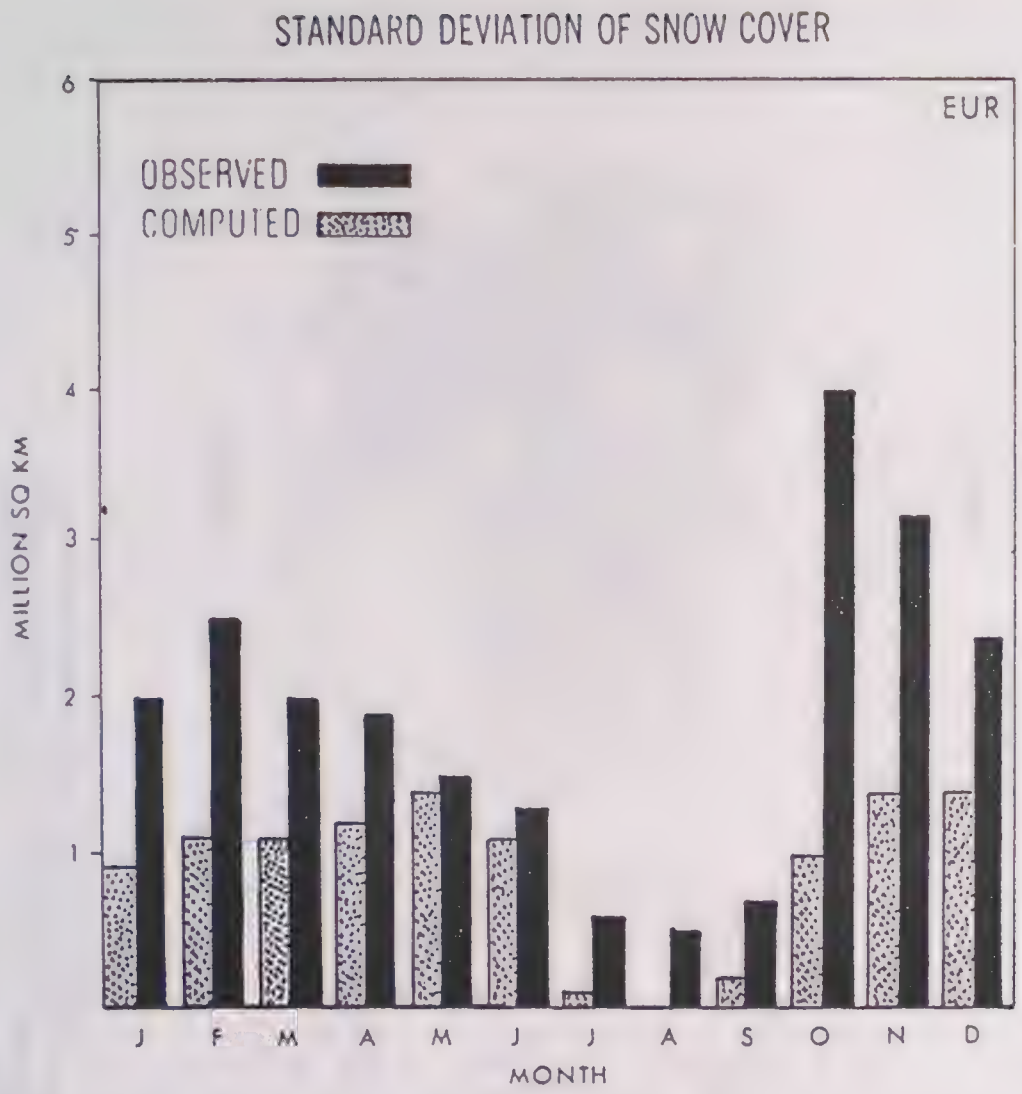



Figure 2.14B Standard deviation of monthly mean snow cover of Eurasia as observed (Matson, personal communication) and as computed by the GCM.
From Hahn (1981)

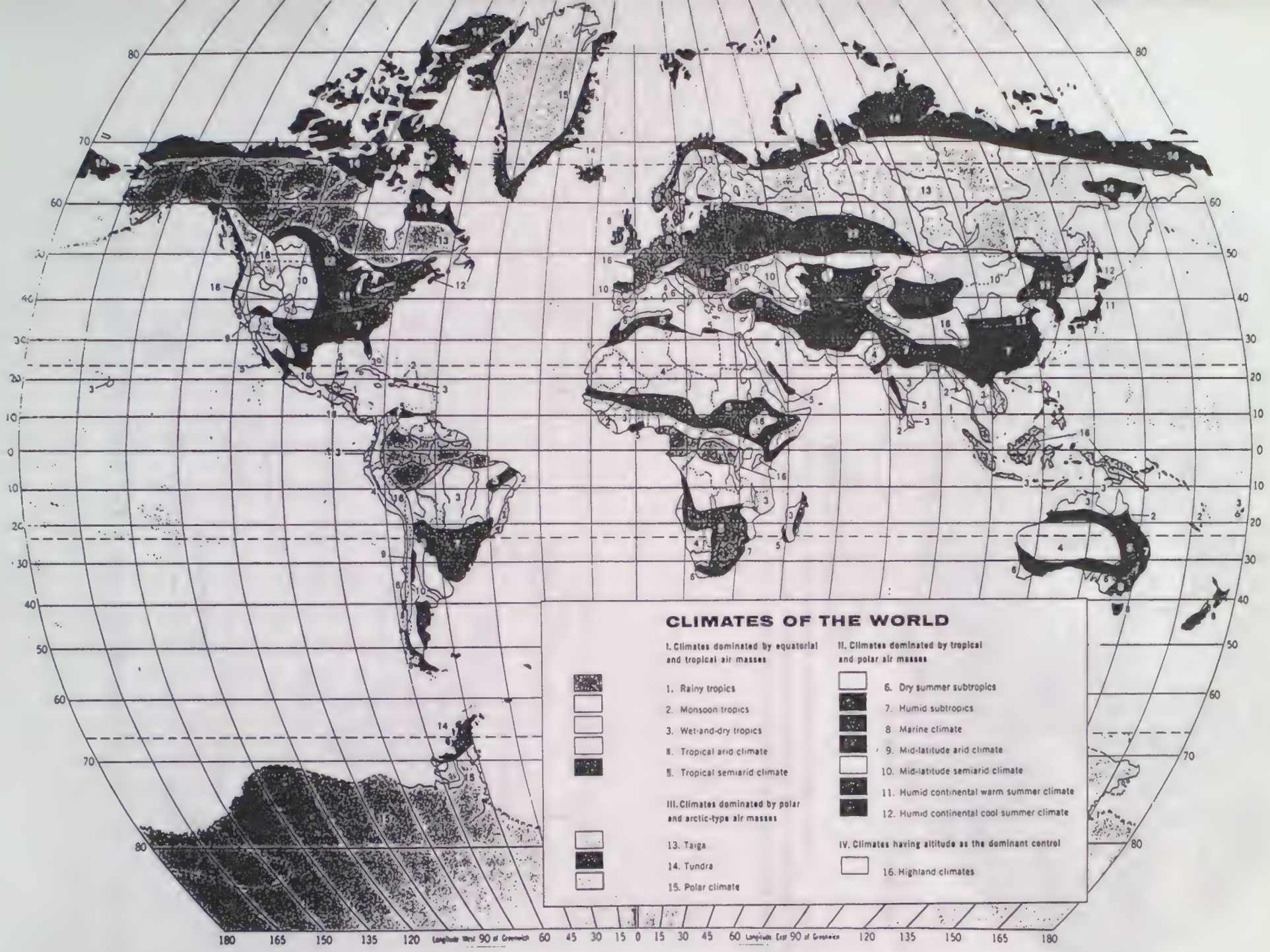



Figure 2.15. From Critchfield (1983).

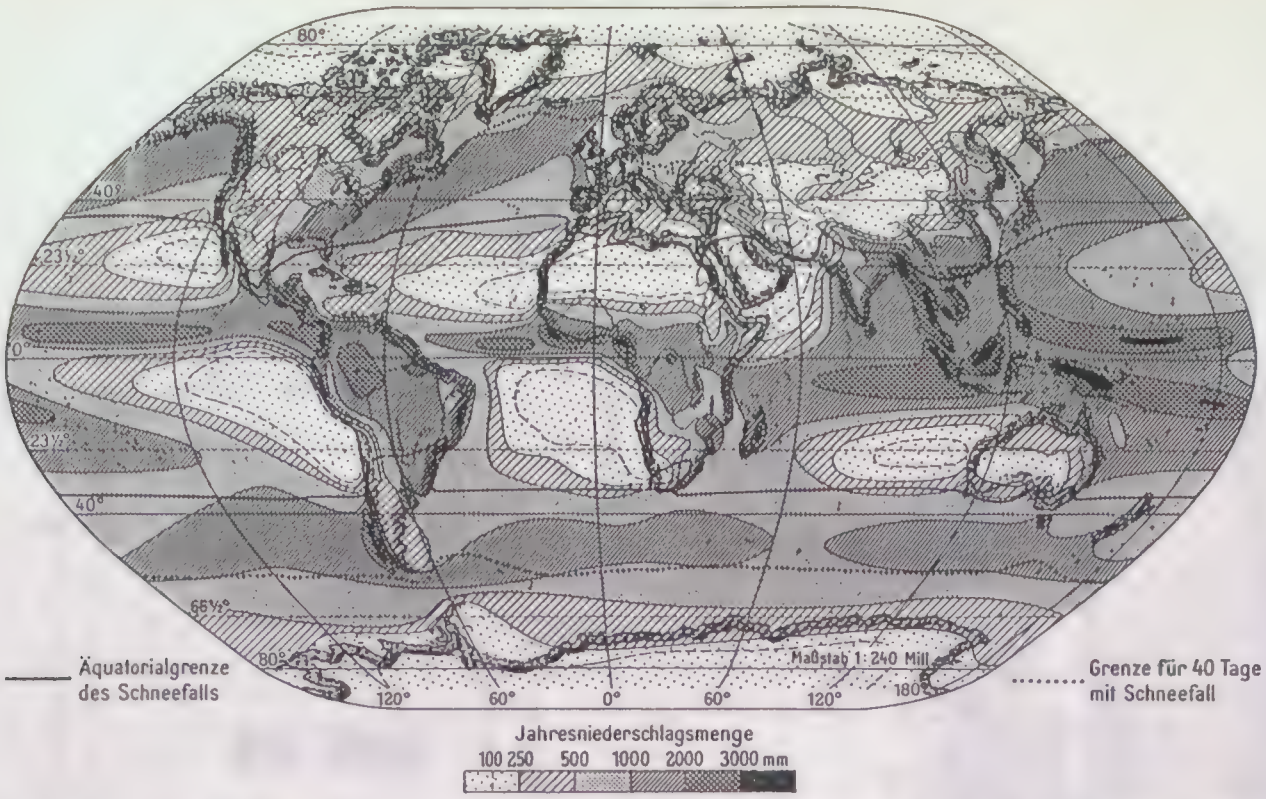



Figure 2.16. **Average annual precipitation over the earth (Jahresniederschlagsmenge) in mm. Also shown are the equatorward limits of snowfall (Äquatorialgrenze des Schneefalls) and the limits for 40 days with snowfall (Grenze für 40 Tage mit Schneefall). (*From Meinardus and Moller.*)** From Trewartha and Horn (1980).

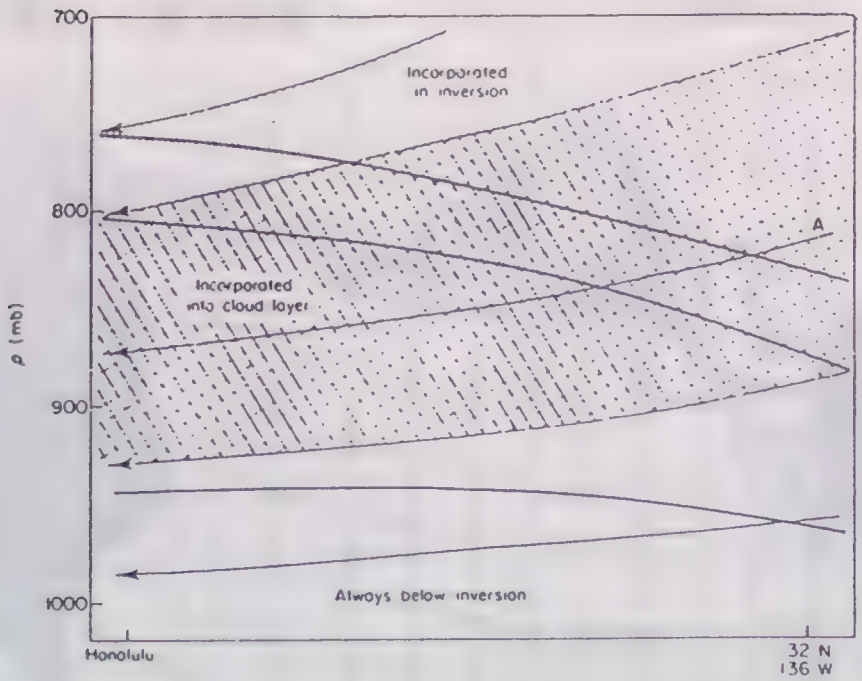



Figure 2.17. The flow of mass through the trade inversion. After Riehl (1979).

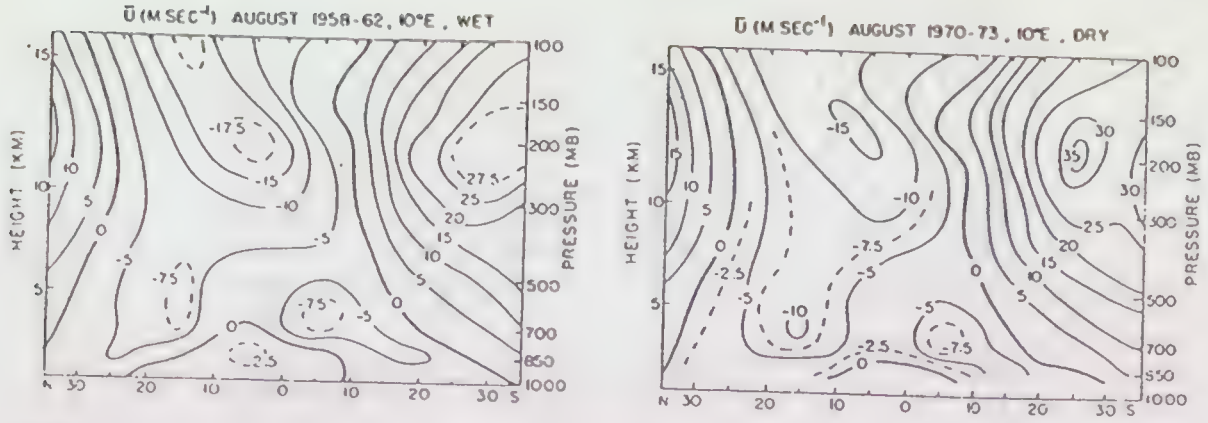



Figure 2.18A Meridional cross-sections along 10°E of mean zonal wind for August 1958–1962 and August 1970–1973. Units: $m\,s^{-1}$

After Newell and Kidson (1984)

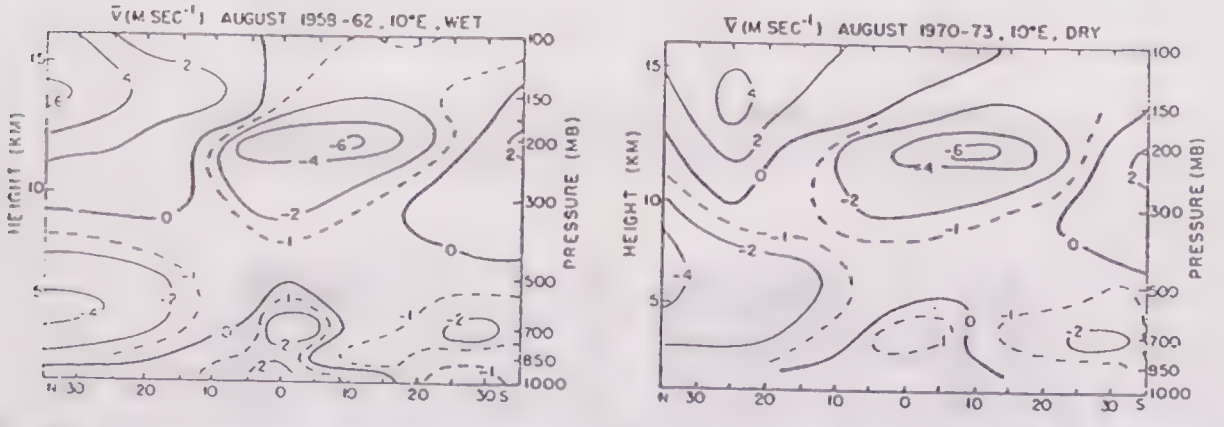



Figure 2.18B Meridional cross sections along 10°E of mean meridional wind for August 1958–1962 and August 1970–1973. Units: $m\,s^{-1}$

After Newell and Kidson (1984)

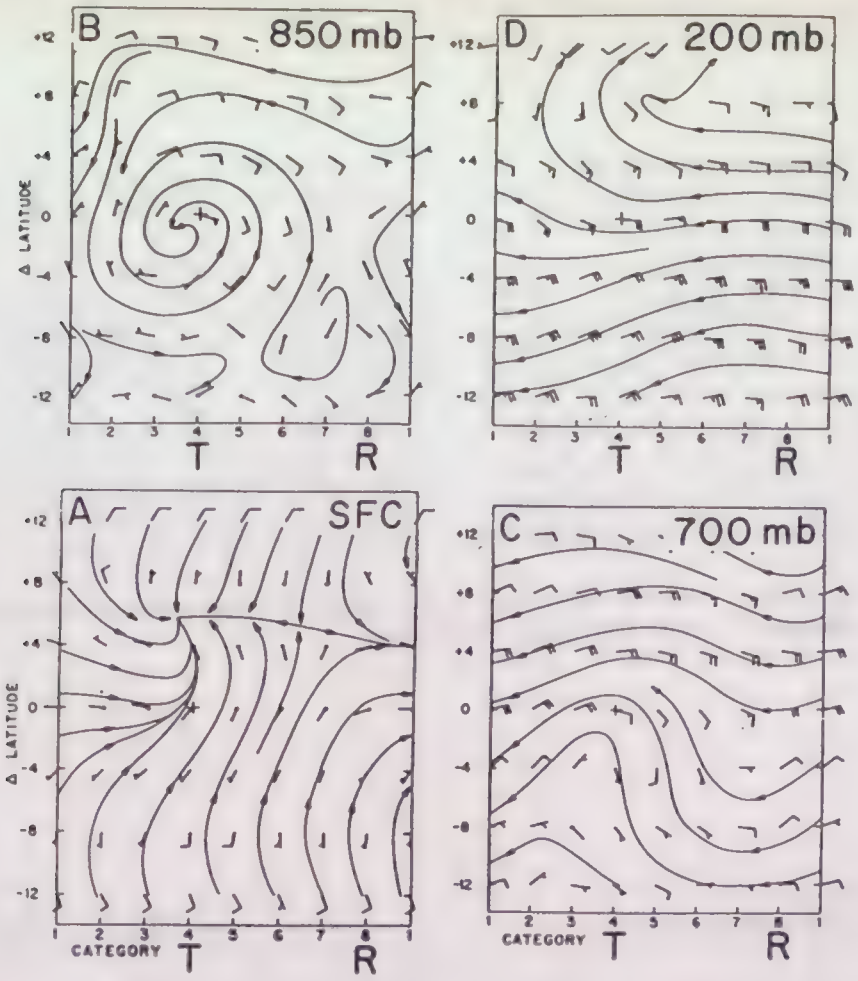



Figure 2.19.

After Hastenrath (1985)).

Streamlines and wind barbs of total flow field for composite African Wave. Category separation is approximately 3 degrees longitude, T denotes trough, R ridge, and cross disturbance center at 700 mb. Full wind barb corresponds to 5, half barb to 2.5, and no barb to 1 m $s^{-1}$ (a) surface, (b) 850 mb, (c) 700 mb, (d) 200 mb. From Reed *et al.* (1977)

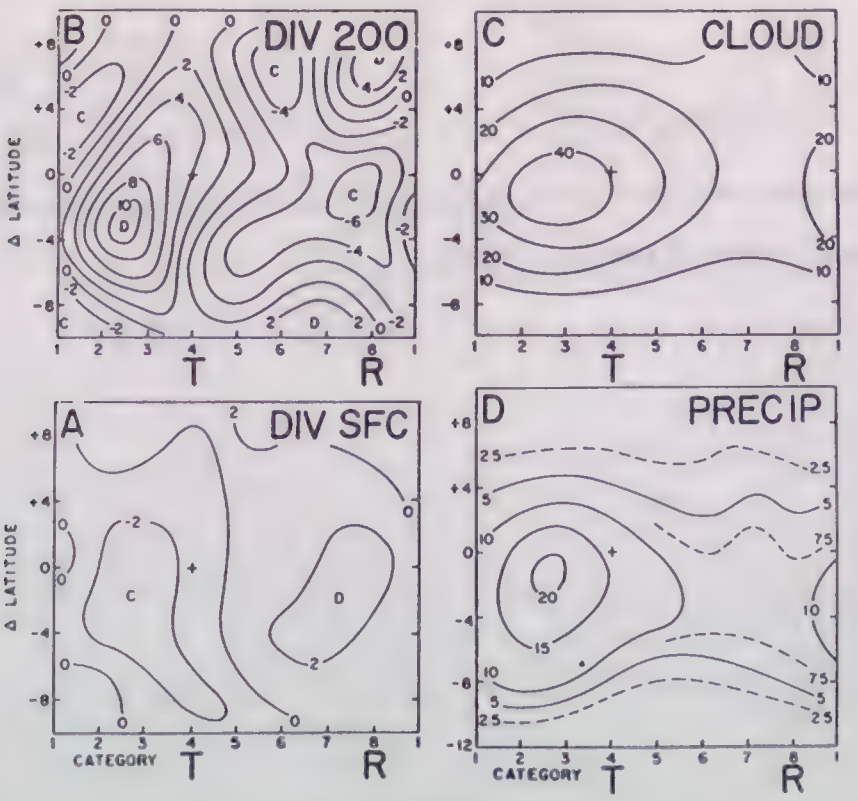
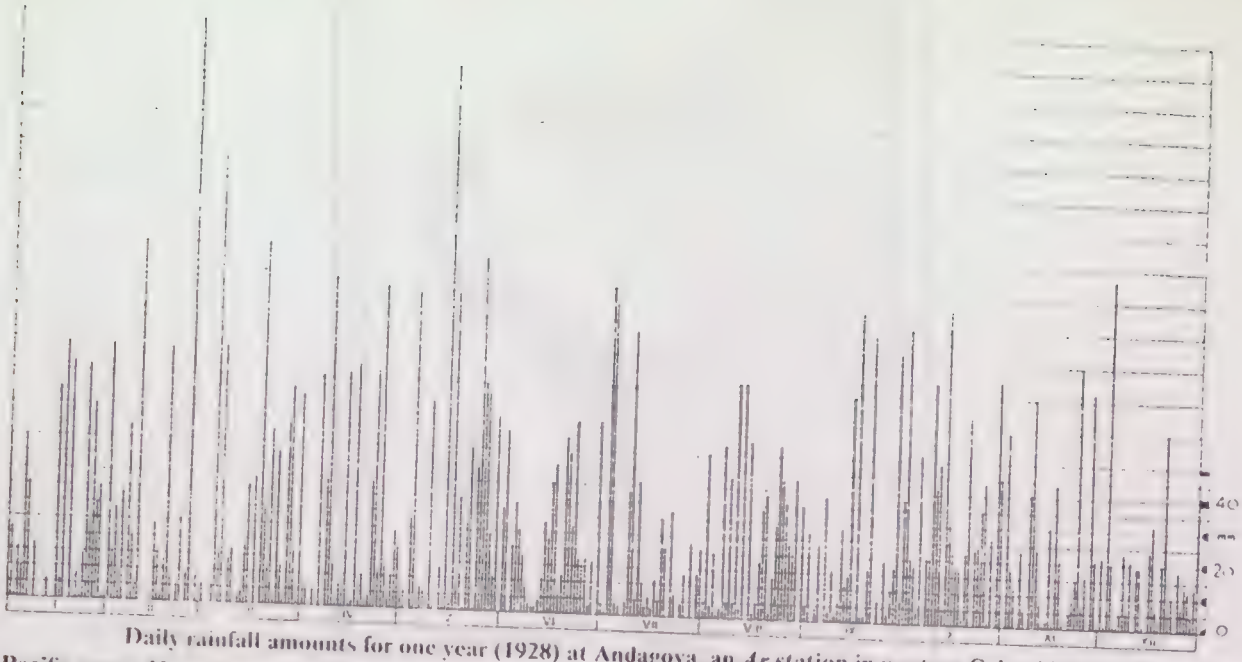



Figure 2.20.

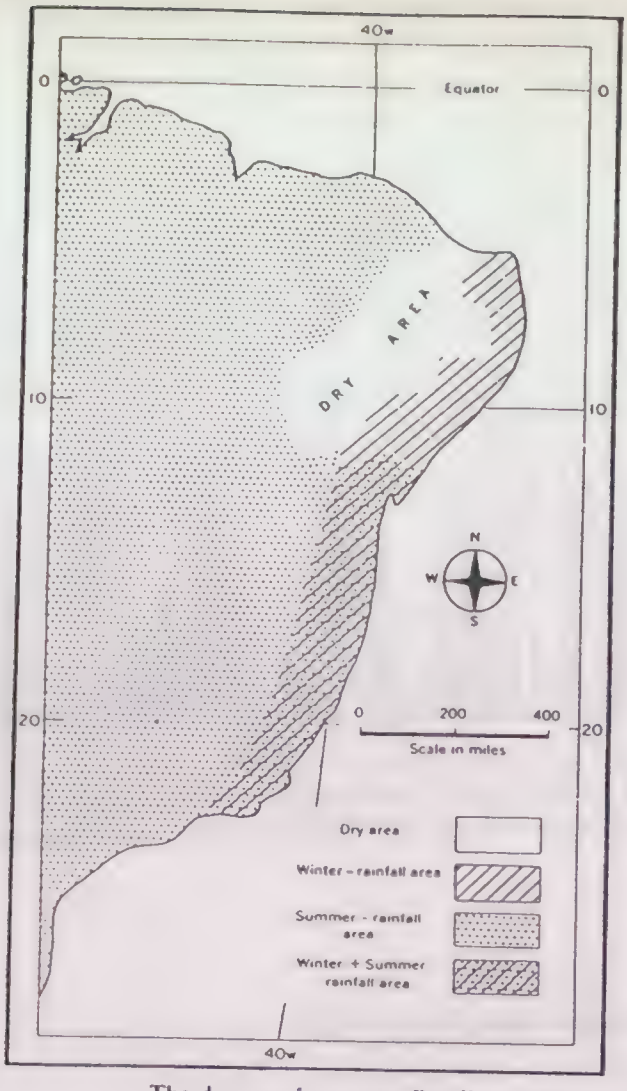
After Hastenrath (1985)).

Weather structure of composite African Wave. (a) Surface, divergence deviation from zonal mean in $10^{-6}$; (b) same but for 200 mb level; (c) percentage of convective cloud cover; (d) average rainfall rate, in mm $day^{-1}$. Symbols as for Fig. 2-19. From Reed *et al.* (1977)



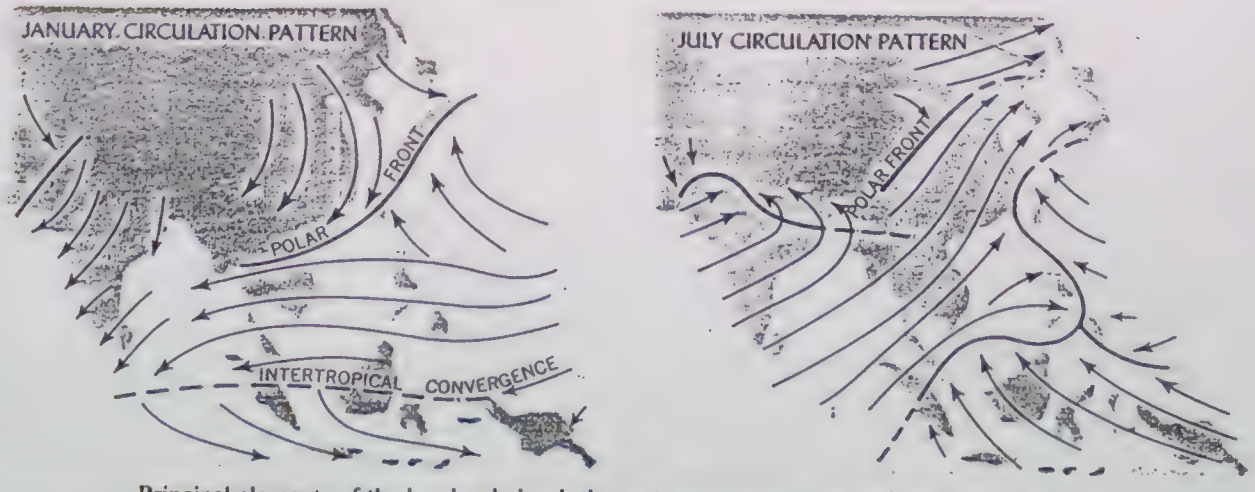
Daily rainfall amounts for one year (1928) at Andagoya, an *Ar* station in western Colombia inland from the Pacific coast. Here the average annual rainfall is exceedingly heavy (7089 mm; 282 in), and no month is dry. In 1928, there were only 48 days on which no rain fell. (*After M. Hendl,* Einführung in die physikalische Klimatologie, *Band II*)

Figure 2.21 From Trewartha and Horn (1980)




The dry area in eastern Brazil occupies an intermediate position between the winter-rainfall region to the east and south and the strong summer-rainfall region to the interior and west. It normally escapes the full effects of the disturbances which produce these contrasting seasonal rainfalls.

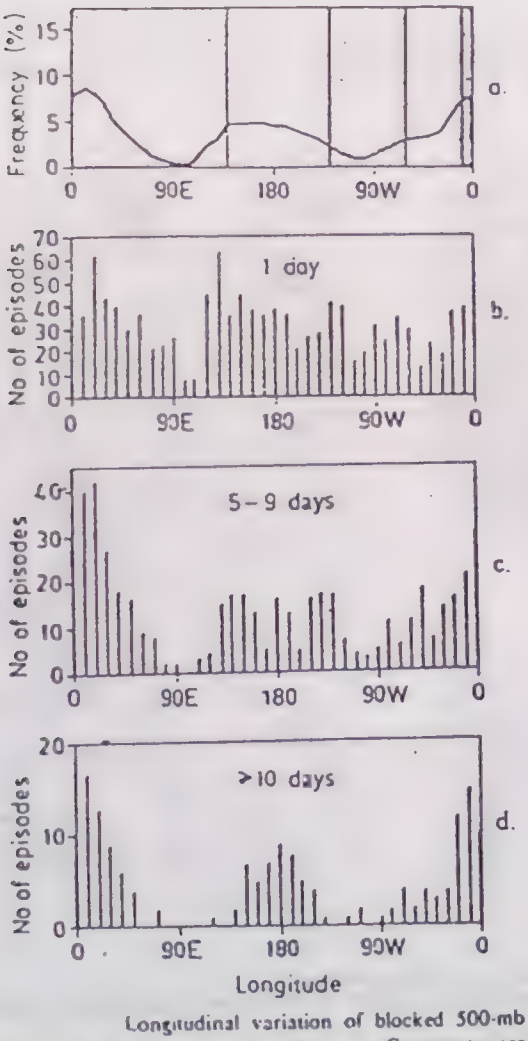
Figure 2.22 From Trewartha and Horn (1980)




Principal elements of the low-level circulation patterns over eastern and southern Asia in the cold and the warm seasons. (*After Thompson, Watts, Flohn, and others. From Trewartha,* The Earth's Problem Climates, *University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wis.*)

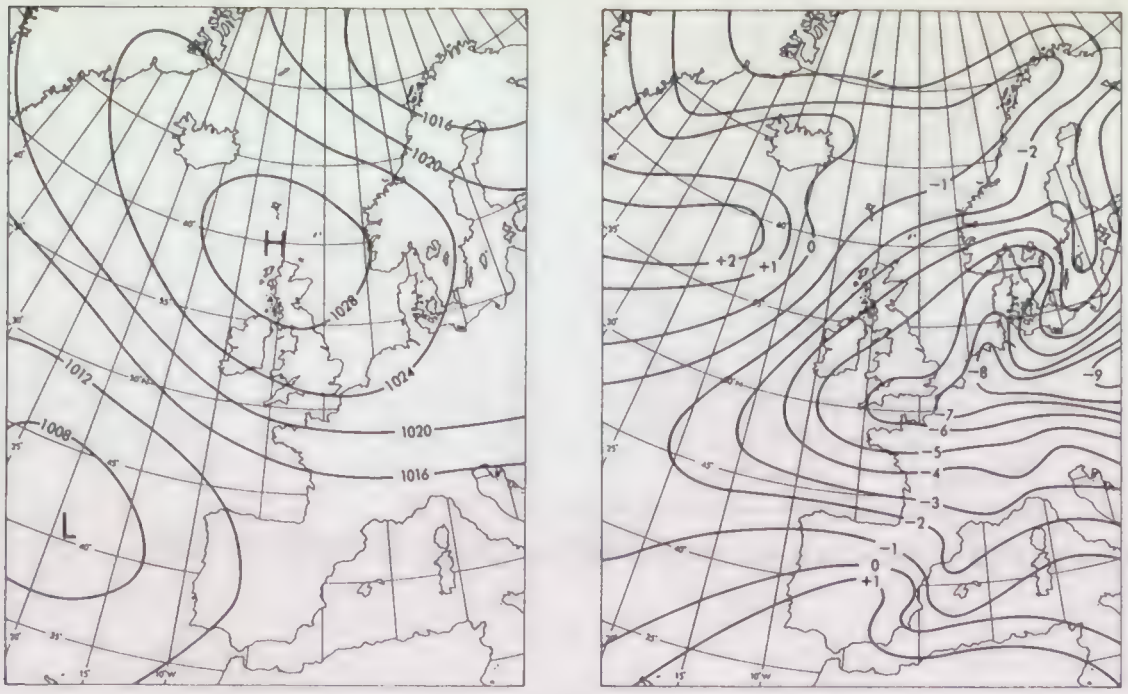
Figure 2.23 From Trewartha and Horn (1980)

Figure 2.24 Glacier at sea level. From Darwin (1979).

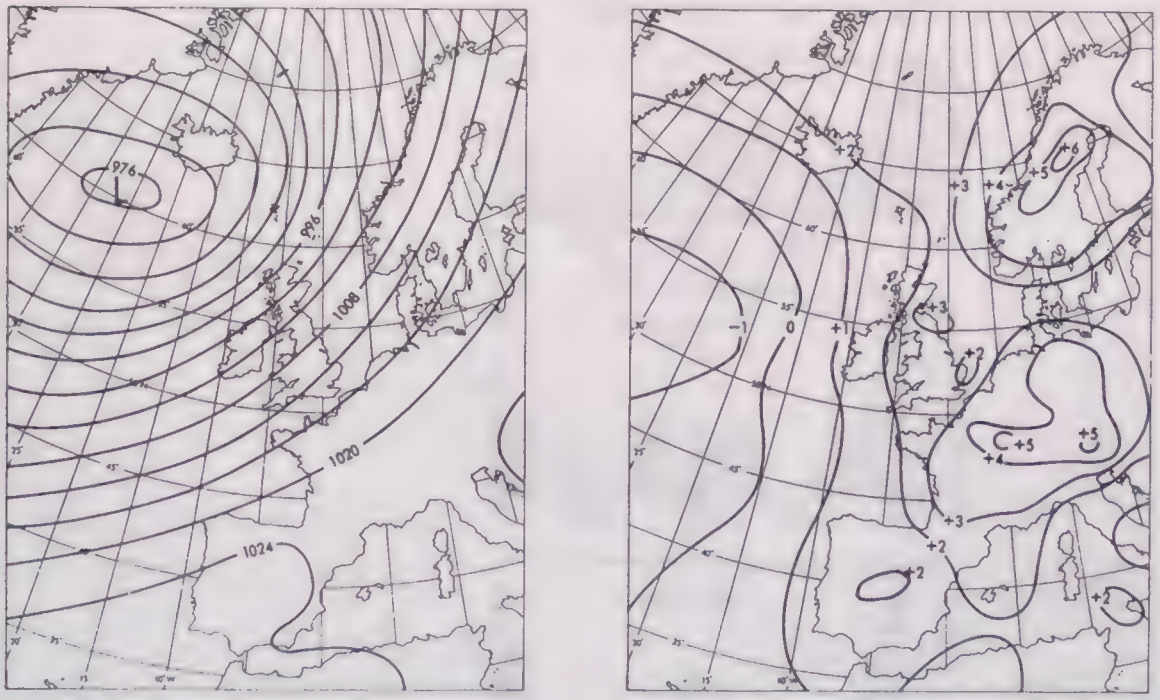



Longitudinal variation of blocked 500-mb flow averaged over the whole year. Continents are shaded. (b–d) Frequency distribution of blocking episodes as a function of longitude. 1950–1979. Duration 1 day (b), 5–9 days (c) and >10 days (d).

Figure 2.25 After Lejenas and Okland (1983)

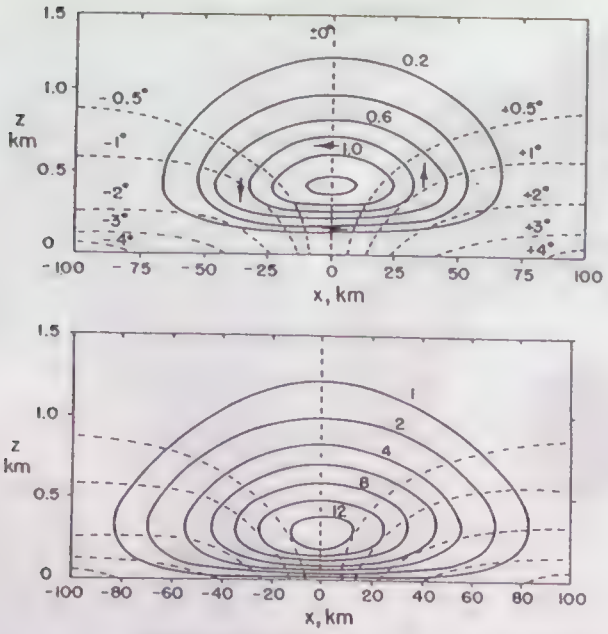



(a) Average pressure (mb) at mean sea level, January 1963.
(b) Average screen-level temperature anomaly (°C), January 1963. (Anomalies mainly from 1931–60 station averages.)



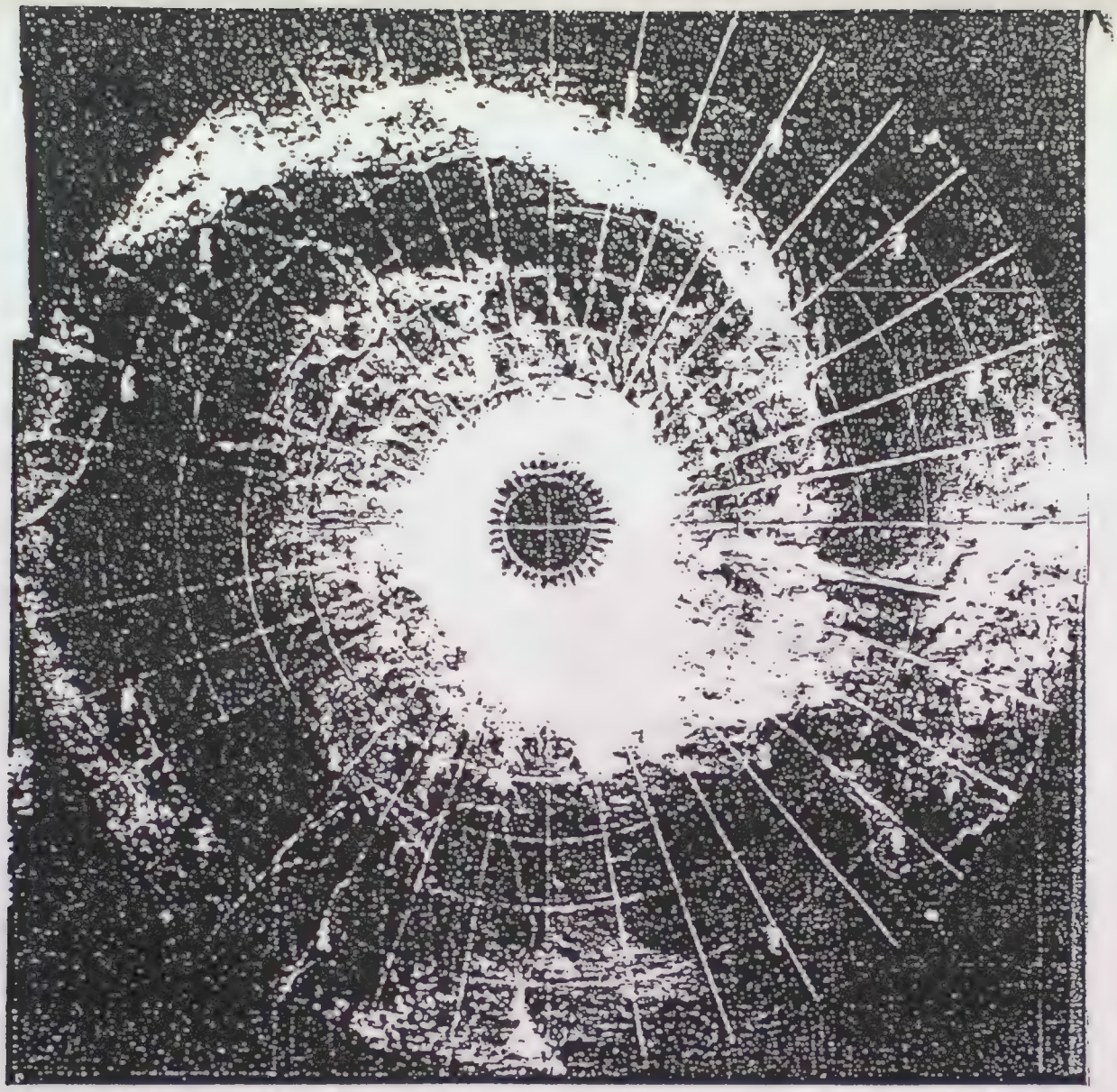

(c) Average pressure (mb) at mean sea level, January 1974.
(d) Average screen-level temperature anomaly (°C), January 1974. (Anomalies mainly from 1931–60 station averages.)

Figure 2.26. From Folland (1983).



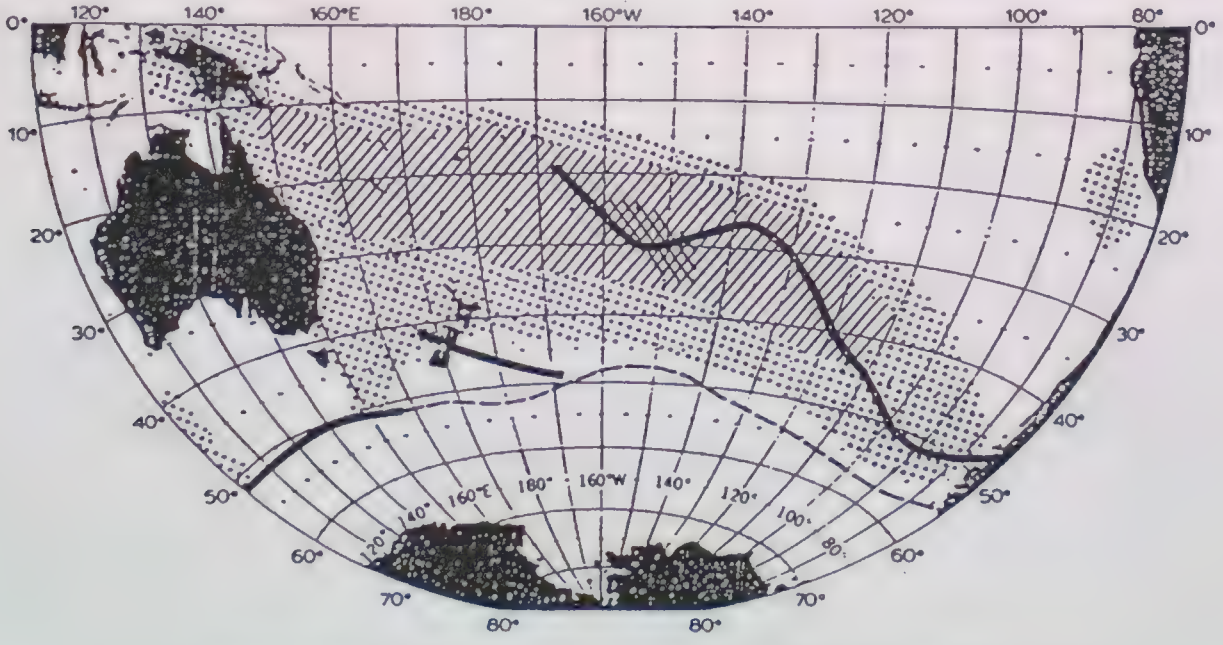

**Vertical cross sections oriented perpendicular to a Southern Hemisphere low-latitude coastline (land to right of 0 km). Upper panel: Deviations of temperature °C (dashed lines) from the temperature at the coastline. A sea breeze circulation results (flow is parallel to solid lines, in sense of arrows). Lower panel: Solid lines are isotachs (lines of equal wind speed in m/s) showing a low level jet from the south (i.e., into the page). (*Courtesy of H. H. Lettau, "Explaining the World's Driest Climate," in H. H. Lettau and K. Lettau (eds.)*, Exploring the World's Driest Climate, *Institute for Environmental Studies, Rep. 101, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis., 1978; pp. 182-248*)**

Figure 2.27 From Trewartha and Horn (1980)



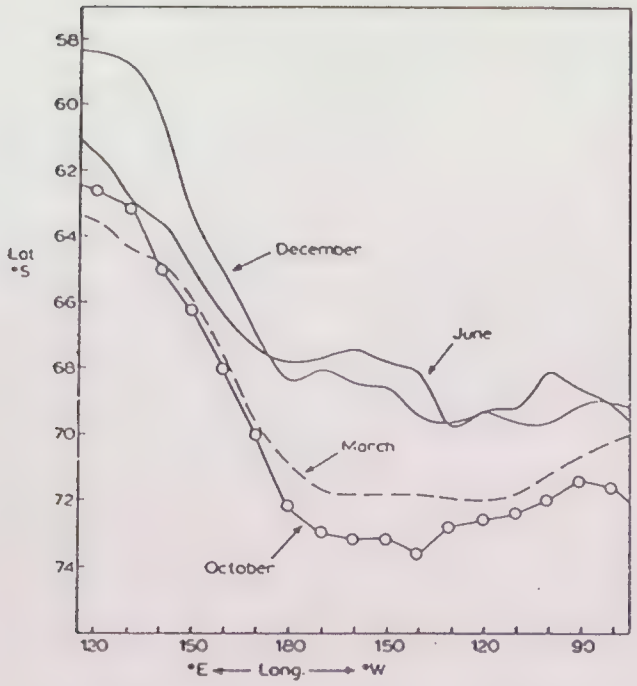
Averaged Southern Hemisphere cloud imagery (visible range) 1–15 October 1967, showing South Pacific cloud band. (After KORNFIELD and HASLER, 1969.)

Figure 2.28 From Streten and Zillman (1984)




Percentage frequency of 5-day averaged mosaics having axes of major cloud bands within a 5°-lat. by 10°-long. area for spring and autumn (stippled >10%; hatched >20%; cross-hatched >40%), after STRETEN (1973). Axes of zones of highest frequency of early cyclonic development for the same seasons is shown by the full line (after STRETEN and TROUP, 1973).

Figure 2.29 From Streten and Zillman (1984)




Mean latitude of the axis of the Antarctic trough in indicated months (1972–1977). (Data from STRETEN, 1980.)

Figure 2.30 From Streten and Zillman (1984)

Köppen's world-wide classification system

Climates are ranged in the following main groups:

A Tropical rain climates
B Arid climates
C (Warm) temperate rain climates
D Boreal forest and snow climates
E Cold snow climates (treeless)

A, C and D are all essentially tree climates; BS is the steppe grassland climate; BW defines the (warm) deserts (W standing for desert-waste/*Wüste*); E climates are those of the tundra and polar desert.

Subdivisions are designated as follows:

s Summer dry season
In group A climates confined to exceptional areas such as lee-sides of islands in the Trade Wind zone.
In groups C and D the wettest month of the year must have $\geqslant 3$ times the average rainfall of the driest month.

w Winter dry season
Group A climates are only designated Aw when at least one month normally has $<60$ mm rainfall.
In groups C and D the wettest month of the year is required to have $\geqslant 10$ times the average rainfall of the driest month.

s′, w′ Special cases of summer or winter dry season climates, where the chief rains come in late summer–autumn.

x Climates where the early summer is wet, late summer fine.

s″, w″ Special cases of summer or winter dry season climates, where the rainy season is split – i.e. has two peaks, with another, short dry season in between.

f Moist climates, with no marked dry season.

m Monsoon climates, with only a short dry season in the winter half-year.

On this system the chief types of climate appearing on the world map (fig.2A..1) are defined as follows:

*Tropical rain climates*

Mean temperature of the coldest month in all cases $> +18^{\circ}$C.

Af Driest month has on average $\geqslant 60$ mm rain.

Am Driest month $<60$ mm but rainfall in the rainy season compensates this enough to allow forest.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Driest month R | 60 | 40 | 20 | 0 mm |
| Required yearly R | 1000 | 1500 | 2000 | 2500 mm |

(Af and Am are both characteristically accompanied by tropical evergreen rain-forest.)

Aw Driest month $<60$ mm: annual rainfall insufficient to compensate.
(Aw produces Savanna.)

*Arid climates*

Defined by (i) $R < 2T + 28$ where summer is the season with most rain.
or (ii) $R < 2T + 14$ where there is no season with more liability to rainfall than another.
or (iii) $R < 2T$ where winter is the season with most rain.

In these formulae $R$ is the average rainfall for the year in centimetres; $T$ is the average yearly temperature ($^{\circ}$C).

BS $R \geqslant T + 14$ for summer rain areas
$R \geqslant T + 7$ where there is no season with more liability to rain than another
$R \geqslant T$ for winter rain areas
(In BS climates the vegetation ranges from bush to grassland.)

BW $R < T + 14$ for summer rain areas
$R < T + 7$ where there is no season with more liability to rainfall than another
$R < T$ for winter rain areas
(BW produces desert.)

*Temperate rain climates*

Mean temperature of the coldest month between +18°C and −3°C.

Cs Wettest (winter) month of the year has ⩾3 times the average rainfall of the driest (summer) month.
(Cs is typically accompanied by evergreen broad-leafed forest.)

Cf No marked dry season.
Sub-types:
Cfa Hot summers: warmest month > + 22°C
Cfb Warm summers: at least 4 months > + 10°C
Cfc Cool summers: only 1–3 months > + 10°C.
(Cfa and Cfb vegetation generally deciduous broad-leafed forest, but in areas with very mild winters evergreen broad-leafed forest.
Cfc vegetation needle-tree forest.)

Cw Wettest (summer) month has ⩾10 times the rainfall of the driest winter month.
(Cw, occurring mainly on mountain heights above Aw climates, produces evergreen forest vegetation.)

*Boreal forest and snow climates*

Mean temperature of the warmest month > + 10°C, coldest month < − 3°C.

Dw Wettest (summer) month has ⩾10 times the average precipitation of the driest (winter) month.

Df Less seasonal difference in the average downput of rain and snow.
Sub-types:
Dfa and Dwa Hot summers: warmest month > + 22°C
Dfb and Dwb Warm summers: at least 4 months > + 10°C
Dfc and Dwc Cool summers: only 1–3 months > + 10°C.
(Dfa, Dfb, Dwa, Dwb climates go with deciduous (broad-leafed) forest.
Dfc, Dwc go with needle-tree forest.)

D climates and their vegetation are only found in the northern hemisphere, where the great continents provide the requisite conditions.

*Cold snow climates*

Mean temperature of the warmest month < + 10°C.

ET Mean temperature of the warmest month > 0°C.
(ET vegetation is tundra, dwarf tree species and mosses.)

EF (sometimes called simply F).
Mean temperature of the warmest month < 0°C.
Brief thaws and rain can occur, but have little or no effect on the long-term condition of the surface.
(No vegetation in EF climates: polar desert.)

Further letters are sometimes used to distinguish particular climates and subdivisions of the KÖPPEN types:

- **d** coldest month < − 38°C
- **g** Ganges type climate, warmest month before the summer solstice, height of summer rainy
- **h** hot: yearly mean temperature > + 18°C
- **i** isothermal: difference between warmest and coldest months < 5°C
- **k** cold-winter climate: yearly mean temperature < + 18°C, but warmest month > + 18°C
- **l** lukewarm, even warmth: all months between +10 and +22°C
- **n** foggy
- **n′** moist, but not foggy: with mean summer temperatures over +24°C designated **n″** over +28°C **n‴**
- **t′** Cape Verde Islands type: warmest in autumn
- **t″** Sudan type: coolest month just after the summer solstice.

It may be held that the types of climate covered by group C embrace too wide a range, and that the cooler temperate climates where birch forest (or mixed birch and pine) constitutes a large element should be distinguished from those of the domain of oak forest where the average temperature of the warmest month is generally about +15°C or over.

The proportions of the Earth's surface classified as falling within KÖPPEN's various types at the present day are estimated as follows:

| | *Portion of land surface* | *Portion of total surface* |
|---|---|---|
| **A** | 20% | 36% |
| **B** | 26% | 11% |
| **C** | 15½% | 27% |
| **D** | 21% | 7% |
| **E** | 17% | 19% |

KÖPPEN's classification can be criticized because it makes no mention of the level of incoming radiation and allows only indirectly and crudely for differences in the rate of evaporation. But these criticisms apply equally to most other classifications.

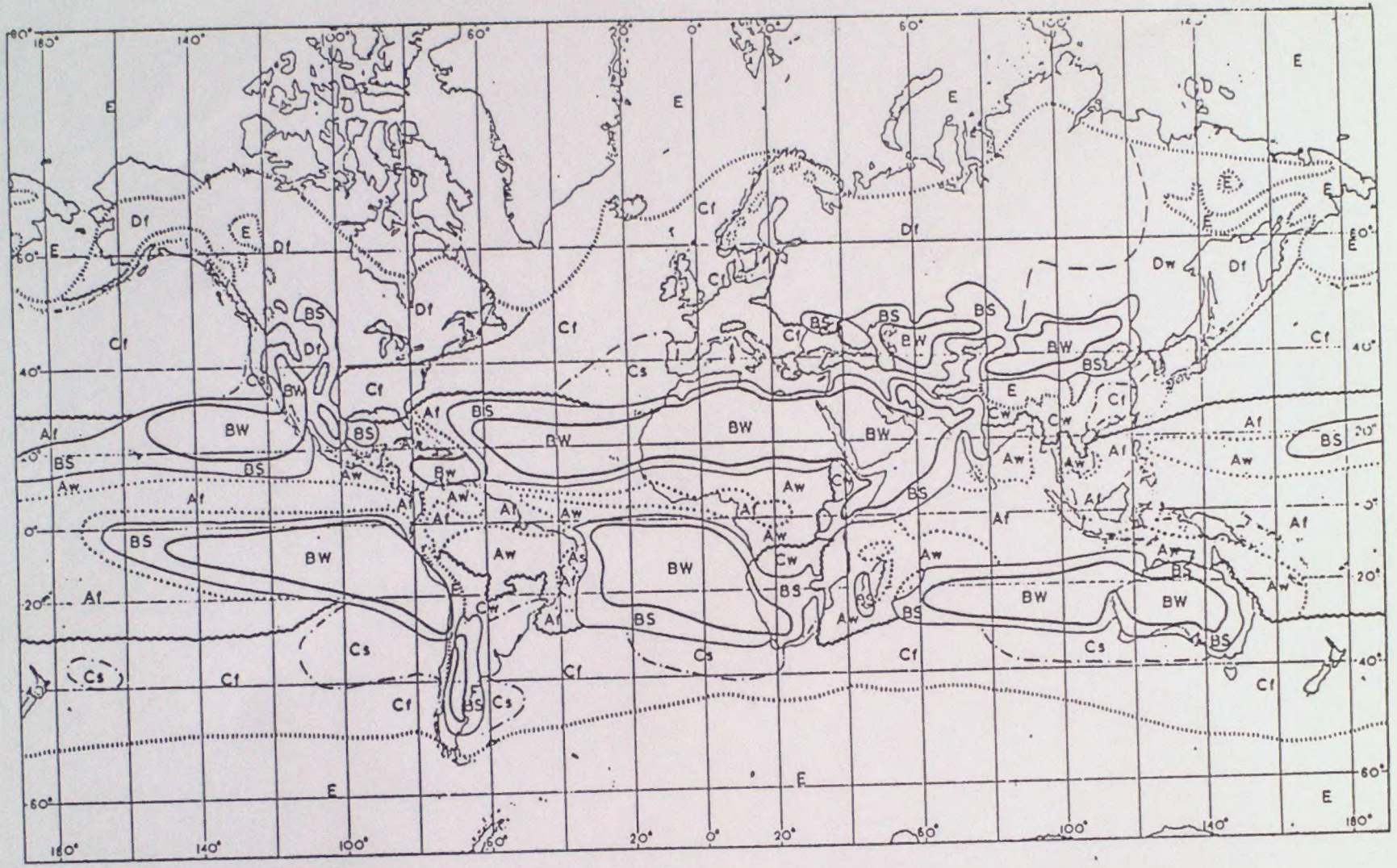



Figure 2A.1 KÖPPEN's world classification of climates.
After Lamb (1972)

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